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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 7, 1898.

The Week.

The war made a huge stride during the week in the destruction of Admiral Cervera's fleet on the Fourth of July, while attempting to escape from the harbor of Santiago, with the miraculous counterloss of but a single man killed on our own fleet. The fight was a natural consequence of the impending siege of the city by Gen. Shafter's forces, which have suffered heavily from the enemy and the elements. In the East, the first reinforcement has reached Admiral Dewey, by way of the Ladrone Islands, where the Governor was made a prisoner, in token of our policy of *beati possidentes*. Camara, meanwhile, is traversing the Suez Canal.

Authentic accounts from several different sources appear to leave no doubt that our Cuban allies at Santiago have acted like savages. Stories of prisoners fired on and decapitated, of the dead mutilated, of quarter refused to drowning sailors, come with too much particularity to be disbelieved, incredible as one would gladly regard them. Our own officers have had to threaten the Cubans with a volley to prevent their frightful barbarity. We hope our commanders will go beyond threats, if occasion calls for it, and shoot down wild beasts wherever found, whether calling themselves Spanish guerillas or Cuban patriots. This irrepressible savagery of the Cuban insurgents is even more disheartening than their apparent failure to do any effective fighting, at which our War Department is said to be so bitterly disappointed. The horrid tales coming to us now throw a lurid light on the glib talk of "Cuba Libre" and its beneficent rule, in which Foraker and the others indulged before the war. We were simply to expel the Spanish troops, and then turn the country over to the insurgents. It is evident now that this would have been like turning it over to so many Bashi-Bazuks. And how remote appears just now that "stable government" which we were going to set up so easily in Cuba. Unluckily, we went to war first, and learned what we were fighting for afterwards.

The pinch of war taxes is beginning to be felt, and in some cases it is unexpectedly severe. The great express companies, it is said, proposed in the first place to pay the stamp tax on their bills of lading or receipts. The tax is only one cent, a sum that does not sound alarmingly oppressive. Upon calculation, however, these companies found that this little tax would amount to 3 per cent. on their entire capital. As this would almost cut their dividends in two, they were obliged to reconsider their action, and have now determined that the cost of the stamp shall be paid by the shipper of the goods. Some of the merchants are up in arms at this decision, and propose to compel the express companies to change it. The argument of these merchants is that the statute requires the transportation companies to give bills of lading when they receive goods for shipment, and also requires these receipts to be stamped. As it is the duty of the companies to issue valid receipts, they must stamp them before they issue them. The statute, however, merely says that "there shall be duly attached and cancelled" a stamp. It does not say by whom it shall be attached or who shall pay for it. There is a general provision in section 6 for the collection of stamp taxes from any person who makes, signs, or issues a document, or for whose use or benefit it is made or issued, which seems clearly to leave it for the parties to decide which one shall pay for the stamp. It is doubtful whether it is not more for the interest of shippers to pay for the stamps than to insist that the express companies shall pay for them. The situation of these companies is peculiar in this respect, that their contracts with the railroads provide for payments in proportion to their gross receipts, the proportion being from 40 to 50 per cent. If the express companies pay the stamp tax, they will have to raise their rates; and as they will have to divide the increase with the railroads, they will have to raise the rates by twice the stamp tax in order to indemnify themselves. The case is a striking illustration of the tendency of taxes to descend with accumulated weight on the head of the ultimate consumer—a tendency which will make itself felt throughout our whole system of transportation.

A speech on the issues of the day by "the leader of the House," on his tenth successive nomination for Congress, is an event of national interest. Contrary to his own usual habit, and that of his Maine associates, Mr. Dingley went down to Lewiston this time to accept in person the candidacy which his constituents again gave him unanimously, according to the Maine custom, and his remarks on the occasion should reach a larger audience than the delegates to the convention or the readers of the Lewiston *Journal*. It is not necessary to quote at length what Mr. Dingley said about the Dingley law. As a matter of course, he is perfectly satisfied with that measure, and he went so far as to say that, "before the country was plunged into war, it was demonstrated, first, that this new tariff would produce ample revenue to meet the peace expenditures of the Government, on the scale of expenditure of 1897, in place of the large deficiency between 1893 and 1897; and, secondly, that this protective policy restored was rapidly recuperating the industries and business of the country, "although unfortunately the rapid improvement experienced for many months has been seriously retarded by the advent of war." Mr. Dingley made repeated recognition of the assistance furnished by Sound-Money Democrats in the House to the Republicans in rejecting unsound financial measures sent over by the Senate, and added:

> "The repeated and substantially solid vote of the Republican Senators and Representatives, aided by Sound-Money Democrats, in favor of keeping all our currency, whether paper or silver, as good as gold, and the repeated nearly solid vote of the Chicago-platform Democracy for measures clearly calculated to depreciate our currency, give new emphasis to the financial issue on which the country spoke so unmistakably two years ago, and on which the people propose to speak more decidedly in the Congressional elections of the present year and in the Presidential election two years ahead."

The most important part of Mr. Dingley's speech was that which discussed the war and the new questions growing out of it. The "beneficent results to us as a nation" which he discerns are that "it has certainly buried for ever the animosities of the four years' civil war, and in two months has welded together as never before the people of the North and South; it has already impressed upon other nations, as nothing else could, the fact that this republic is one of the great Powers of the world, entitled to consideration second to no nation on earth; and, lastly, it has afforded an opportunity—as only a just war can—for the exhibition of the ennobling qualities of self-sacrifice, patriotic devotion, and heroism which dignify manhood and check the growth of sordid avarice and selfishness." As to what may follow the war, Mr. Dingley refers to the "fears that the people of this country may be so intoxicated with the demonstration of their power as to change the peaceful and unambitious policy which has heretofore prevailed, and induce the country to enter upon the policy of aggression, colonial expansion, and empire," and says that he "can appreciate the gravity of such fears honestly entertained." He holds that "nothing has thus far occurred to change the declaration of Congress when this war was accepted, that our purpose in waging it is not territorial expansion, but to promote the interests of humanity and liberty"; but adds that "whether these

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interests will make it necessary to permanently hold any of the islands which we may wrest from Spain, time alone can determine." He hastens to explain that the annexation of Hawaii is an altogether different matter from the permanent retention of territory hitherto owned by Spain; that it is only "the outcome of a policy advocated by our leading statesmen and military and naval strategists for half a century, simply on the ground that the Sandwich Islands are a part of our system and essential for the defence of the Pacific Coast—a necessity made strikingly apparent by the events of the war—and has no relation to the permanent acquisition of territory and countries outside of our system." Altogether it is obvious enough that the advocates of an imperial policy need not fear any effective opposition from the leader of the House.

Senator Hoar of Massachusetts made a characteristic exhibition of himself on Tuesday. He comes from a State in which both the traditions of the past and the intelligent opinion of the present are arrayed against the policy of annexing distant territory inhabited by people of other races. He evidently sympathizes with this opposition to an imperial policy, and shares the fears of thoughtful men among his constituents as to the effect upon the nation of the new departure now proposed. But he does not want to cut loose from his party, which has recently voted all but unanimously in the House for the annexation of Hawaii; or to take issue with the McKinley Administration, which, for some reason not yet revealed, is pushing the scheme with the utmost zeal. So the Massachusetts Senator compromises with his conscience by condemning "the acquisition of dominion over barbarous archipelagoes in distant seas" as fraught with "the most serious danger the people of the United States have encountered in all their history," and approving the acquisition of a group of islands 2,000 miles away from our western coast, inhabited by people who are admittedly unfit to govern themselves—on the ground that the offence is so little, and that "the population is not equal to one of our third-rate cities." The men who favor keeping all the Spanish territory that we can lay hands on will welcome this evidence that they have nothing to fear from either of the Massachusetts Senators, Lodge being, of course, with them, and Hoar capable of getting up a lot of excuses for surrendering his convictions when the pinch comes.

Mr. Loud of California is one of the few members of Congress who make occasional attempts to limit its extravagance. It cannot be said that he has hitherto been successful; his supporters are few and his opponents are many. But he does succeed in bringing abuses to public notice, and this is the first condition of all reform. As a member of the committee on claims for four years his testimony as to the manner in which claims are carried through Congress is competent, and it is certainly interesting. It is the usual practice for the claims committee to report favorably a claim so reported by the committee of the preceding Congress. In accordance with this practice Mr. Loud, when he first entered Congress, gave his approval to a claim for $40,000 arising from the condemnation of some property in the region of the great lakes for the purposes of a canal. The claim, he states, was one of the most perfect he ever saw. There was not a flaw in it, and it had been unanimously approved by a number of committees. Mr. Loud, however, became suspicious, and on investigating the matter in the records of the War Department he discovered a remarkable state of facts. In the first place, the claimant had no title at all to the land condemned by the Government. In the second place, the value of the land was never more than $25. Finally, the claimant was the chief promoter of the scheme for having the Government construct the canal at a cost of some $50,000. It is hard to say which is more amazing—the audacity of a man who would have the Government construct a canal for the sake of obtaining from it $40,000 as damages for taking worthless land that did not belong to him, or the incompetence of committees of Congress that report such claims favorably.

As the entanglements of our Government abroad are likely to be serious, it is well to dispose of our domestic difficulties at once, and the action of the Senate in providing for a final settlement of the Pacific railroad claims is commendable. A committee to consist of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of the Interior, and the Attorney-General is to have the matter in charge, its action to be subject to the approval of the President. No settlement shall be made which does not stipulate for the payment of the principal of the debt with the unpaid interest in full. A period of ten years is allowed for the completion of the payments, which are to be in equal semi-annual instalments, and until paid the debt is to bear not less than 3 per cent. interest. With characteristic ineptitude, Senator Morgan attempted to involve this settlement with the construction of the Nicaragua Canal, but only succeeded in wasting a little time. The Senate was for once in the mood for business, and thus quietly accepted a businesslike measure. The Populists probably think that there will be no lack of horrible themes with which to rouse their constituents, and it must be admitted that it is not easy to state the complicated relations between the Government and the Pacific railroads in such a way as to fire the popular heart. It seems that, after all, the Government may get back the money which it loaned, with interest—a consummation that no one would have thought possible a short time ago. If this can be done, the country ought to be thankful to have the matter disposed of, particularly as the method adopted prevents all fraud and removes the subject from politics.

Another Executive will appoint black men to command black troops—Gov. Leedy of Kansas. He is the first Governor beyond the Mississippi to adopt this policy, and the fifth in the country, the others being the Executives of Massachusetts, Indiana, Virginia, and North Carolina. Sectionally, they represent the extreme East, the middle West, the trans-Mississippi region, and the upper South. Politically, they stand two Republicans (the representatives of Massachusetts and Indiana), one Democrat (the Virginian), one Populist (Leedy), and one Populist-Republican (Russell of North Carolina). The Governor of Alabama, who is a Democrat, but no stronger a Democrat than Virginia's, refuses to appoint any but white officers for the negro troops of that State. Some other Governors, both South and North, have not yet absolutely committed themselves either way. Meanwhile, it is a significant fact that public sentiment everywhere becomes all the while more pronounced in favor of fair play, and in endorsement of Gov. Tyler of Virginia, who holds that "to pursue any other course than the one he has marked out for himself would be a violation of his oath of office, wherein he is pledged to make no discrimination on acount of race or color." A noteworthy illustration of this tendency is the commendation of the policy by the chief Democratic newspaper of South Carolina. The Charleston *News and Courier* the other day received a letter from a clergyman expressing the hope that at least one regiment of colored soldiers would be mustered into the United States volunteer army from South Carolina, and it not only gave its cordial endorsement to the suggestion, but announced its conviction that the colored soldiers ought to go to the front under their own officers, since, "'if they are good to obey, some of them will be efficient to command," and it would be "only fair to give them some of the emoluments and honors which go with the shoulder-straps."

As we mentioned, in passing, the extraordinary (and to us incredible) deliverance regarding "imperialism" which Gen. Merritt was reported to have made at a dinner in San Francisco some weeks ago, we are glad to give currency to the denial that he used the language attri-

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buted to him. Gen. Merritt was represented to have said: "I believe in the new national policy of the United States, which looks to the acquisition of additional territory representing the outlying islands that are requisite for the development of national strength and growth." Mayor Phelan, who gave the dinner, now says that neither were these words uttered by Gen. Merritt, nor were any such sentiments as they embody expressed by him; and no reporters were present.

The effect of the war upon politics in this State is watched with some anxiety by our bosses. Platt is said to be somewhat nervous lest hostilities may cease soon enough to allow Lieut.-Col. Roosevelt to get back here, with his reputation of a fighter who knows not fear, and who conducted himself like a seasoned veteran in his first battle, in time for a nomination for Governor. That would be a result of the war which would create havoc in the Platt system of government, the like of which would find no parallel save in that of Cervera's fleet under the fire of Sampson's guns. While Platt is thus worrying lest the war may give him a candidate whom he does not want, Croker is said to be looking for a candidate with a war record, and to be ordering aspirants for the nomination to get into the field in some capacity or other, in order that the ticket may have the benefit of a military reputation to help it through. Efforts were made in the Tammany observance of the Fourth to get the organization into line with the war, but they were not conspicuously successful. The chief orator was so far behind the times that he devoted himself mainly to repeating last year's denunciation of England, apparently oblivious of the fact that the proper thing now is to love England. When he asked what England had to give us, a voice from the back of the hall shouted "Civilization," and the effect was paralyzing.

The resolution which Gen. Wager Swayne drew, and which the anti-machine Republican organization adopted unanimously last week, expresses admirably the fundamental objections to the plan which Gov. Black is considering for a change in our election laws. It declares:

> "The policy of committing to political parties as such the control of popular elections is essentially inimical and dangerous to republican institutions. No such right and no such need can exist without impeaching the fidelity and diligence of the people as a whole. It is contrary alike to government of the people, by the people, and for the people. It gives two political combinations a distinct preference in law to which no class of people are separately entitled, and gives also such combinations opportunity for self-perpetuation and aggrandizement, which may at any time conflict with popular supremacy."

This is the view of a man who is not only a stalwart Republican but an able lawyer, and it should have great weight with the Governor. It is absurd to say that it should have weight with the Platt majority of the Legislature, for nothing has weight with that extraordinary collection of persons except "what the old man wants." They, however, can take no action in the matter unless the Governor shall recommend them to do so; so that the full responsibility rests upon him.

The decision of the Appellate Division on the effect of the civil-service law of 1898 upon the civil-service provisions of the new charter is something of a surprise. It is an unexpected triumph for the learned Whalen, for it supports his contentions as disputed by the Civil-Service-Reform Association, and leaves the local Civil-Service Commission free to make its own rules and regulations without asking the approval of the State Commission. The decision seems to be out of harmony with former decisions of the Court of Appeals, but this may not be the case. The matter will doubtless be carried to the latter court for final decision, and the result will be awaited with intense interest by both Tammany men and the incumbents of "places" in the city service who do not enjoy Tammany protection, for if the local commission is really supreme, there will be no difficulty in the making of such regulations as will bring about a "clean sweep."

The enemies of the Australian ballot system throughout the country were recently gladdened by the news that the Delaware Legislature, just before its adjournment, had passed a bill which practically undid the reform, so far as it had been carried in that State, and would allow the political machines to resume their old control over the printing and distribution of the tickets. But Delaware has a new constitution now, under which the signature of the Governor is necessary to validate any measure left in his hands upon the adjournment of the law-makers, and it has also a Governor who recognizes his responsibility as a part of the law-making power. Gov. Tunnell has announced that the objectionable bill "is in the morgue," and the attempt to overthrow the secret ballot has thus failed. This was the first time that the professional politicians, who everywhere fought the introduction of the Australian ballot, had ever made any headway towards abolishing the new system, and the final failure of their scheme is cause for rejoicing outside of Delaware, as well as within that State.

Speaker Reed cannot make the Republican party in the House of Representatives accept his platform that "empire can wait," but his influence in Maine is still potent enough to restrain his fellow partisans in that State from endorsing the imperial policy. The most striking feature of the Republican State convention at Augusta last week was the entire silence of all concerned regarding the questions of annexing Hawaii and of retaining Spanish territory which may come into our possession during the war. Not one word was said upon either of these questions by any of the orators, nor did the platform make the most remote allusion to them. Indeed, the resolutions were remarkably few and brief. Beyond endorsing the present Governor, who was renominated, the State delegation in Congress, and President McKinley, especially for his "wisdom in the management of the Cuban question," expressing grateful appreciation of the valor of the army and navy, and pledging protection and care to the wives and children of those who had gone to the war, the single plank of interest beyond the borders of the State was this: "A currency for business and labor, for the soldier and the pensioner, that is as good as gold the world over."

There is a refreshing contrast between the shirking of the financial issue by the Republicans of President McKinley's own State and the pronounced position in favor of the gold standard assumed by the same party in Iowa. Conventions for the nomination of Congressmen are now being held in the latter State, and the noteworthy feature about them is the bold and explicit character of the financial resolutions in the platforms which the Republicans are adopting. Here is the admirable delaration made by the convention in the First District last week:

> "We declare ourselves in favor of the present monetary standard of gold, the standard of the commercial world, and we demand such legislation by the Congress of the United States as will secure the enactment of this principle into law; we are unalterably opposed to the free coinage of silver or any other scheme for the depreciation, debasement, or cheapening of our currency, or the lessening of its purchasing power."

This demand for legislation which will establish the gold standard beyond all possibility of danger, seems to prevail throughout the State of Iowa. The Republican newspapers heartily endorse the passage of such resolutions, which many of them have been earnestly advocating. A well-informed correspondent in Iowa writes us that some of the Republican Congressmen from that State wanted to shirk the financial issue, and that "urgent requests came from Washington to keep mum—do nothing but wave the flag and demand the vigorous prosecution of the war, and the Nicaraguan Canal! But," he adds, "the people would not have it so; they are demanding that the word 'gold' be put in the platform, and that Congress act."

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SANTIAGO, AND AFTER.

No more dramatic and happy revulsion of feeling than that which occurred between Sunday night and Monday morning ever marked our national life. Gen. Shafter's despatch announcing that he had exhausted his offensive power in attaining the advanced positions so dearly won, was depressing, if not discouraging. No one doubted that we should finish the work to which he had put our hand; but the prospect was one of delay for reinforcements, and further exposure of our gallant men to attack by the enemy and to more dreaded dangers of climate and disease. The American people bade fair, therefore, to come to their national holiday with a sense of disaster almost comparable to that of the Spaniards on *their* national holiday—May 2—when the news from Manila reached them. But the short telegram in the morning papers of July 4, positively telling of the destruction of Cervera's fleet, at once changed gloom to joy and created for the day a patriotic climax of an extraordinary kind.

Our first thoughts flew, of course, to the fleet and its dazzling success. In four hours' fighting it had seen the labor and waiting and patience of six weeks gloriously crowned. The victory seems incredibly complete. It is really far more wonderful than Dewey's achievement in Manila Bay. In his case there was the element of a night surprise and of an antagonist feeble at best. But off Santiago there was a battle waged on terms chosen by the Spanish Admiral himself—desperately chosen, it is true—and in which the enemy had four fighting-ships of great speed and powerful batteries. Yet, at the close of the contest, they all lay wrecked and burning in the breakers; more than half their crews, including Cervera himself, were prisoners; and Sampson could report our loss as only one man killed and two wounded. This astounding result, coming within two months after the world was rubbing its eyes at Dewey's victory, gives our navy a record of triumph quite without parallel.

The comparative inefficiency of the Spanish navy does not detract from the credit due ours, if it does go far to explain the amazing one-sidedness of the battle. Capt. Sigsbee put his finger on the truth when he said that it was not so much a question of ships and guns as of drill and discipline. The Spanish ships were, of their class, better than any of ours. Their guns were of terrible power. But the patient gun-drill three times a week, by which the deadly gunnery of our crews had been acquired was unknown in the Spanish navy, and in the stress of battle its splendid fighting-machines went to the bottom for lack of disciplined handling. This is the great naval lesson of the Santiago seafight. It was the victory of skill and coolness born of infinite painstaking and long training. At the same time it is highly probable that the fleet would not have been destroyed as it was had it not been for the work of the army. It seems certain that what forced Cervera to leave the harbor was the holding by our soldiers of heights commanding it. He himself is reported to have said that he knew he should be overwhelmed by our ships, but that he preferred to take his chances at sea rather than "die like a rat in a hole." That, at any rate, was his situation, and it was the splendid courage and dashing charges of our army which forced him to bolt from his hole. So we are not to think of all those lives as thrown away. If the thing had to be done, it was done in the only way possible; and the valor and indomitable constancy of our men on shore contributed as directly towards dealing this frightful blow to the enemy as did the gunners on our squadron.

The destruction of Cervera's fleet accomplishes the main purpose of our military and naval operations in Santiago, and leaves the Spanish forces in the island of Cuba isolated. Their communications with Spain are now cut off. They can obtain no reinforcements. They can receive no supplies of ammunition or of provisions from the mother country, or any other, except by an occasional blockade-runner. In short, the island is reduced to a condition where further resistance is useless. Any prolongation of it by the Spaniards in Cuba itself will be sheer foolhardiness and desperation, involving them in heavier penalties at the final settlement.

We may, therefore, expect early proposals for a cessation of hostilities unless the Spanish statesmen are wholly demented. In other words, the victory achieved by Admiral Sampson and Gen. Shafter points the way to an honorable peace, which is the only rational object of any war. When the opportunity is presented to us it should be availed of, not only as a priceless boon in itself, but as a means of avoiding a possible conflict with stronger Powers than Spain, a conflict of longer duration and more doubtful result. In what spirit ought we to take up the negotiations when they are presented to us? All the difficulties which might surround this question disappear when we cast our eyes upon the declaration which we made to the world when we began the war, viz.:

> "The United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island [Cuba], except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

The spirit of this resolution covers every possible source of gain arising from conquest, for although other possessions of Spain were not mentioned, they were not considered at the time as involved in the controversy, which related solely to Cuba. Granting that we may have some duties to perform in Cuba in the way of providing a settled government after overturning the Spanish rule, everything else becomes easy if we keep the promise we made to the world and to ourselves when we first drew the sword. If we do not mean to keep that promise, everything becomes involved in doubt and confusion, and the prospect of an early peace grows dim.

UNDERSTANDINGS WITH ENGLAND.

In judging the weight to be attached to the present *entente* with England, consideration should be given to the times and circumstances under which previous good understandings have been reached and the effects which have attended them. There have been two noteworthy epochs in the history of the United States, at which this country and England have been drawn together before—the first the period of Washington's administration, the second the period immediately preceding our civil war. Both produced treaties of importance, and both were followed by periods of estrangement, ending, in the first case, in war.

Jay's treaty with England, arranged in 1794, was the last great triumph of Washington's career. The money necessary to carry its provisions into effect was not voted until 1796, in which year Washington addressed his farewell to the public. This treaty closed the long struggle of the Gallomaniac Republicans to involve us in the war between England and France, and was a direct fruit of Washington's wise policy of neutrality in that contest. The understanding with England on which it rested, and of which it was partly cause and partly effect, was distinctly a Federalist piece of work, and the Federalists were always a pro-English party. They had all been born English subjects, and had begun life with the same attachment to England that we have to the United States; they had been driven to take up arms against England, but none the less, their habits, turn of thought, and even institutions remained in great part English. When they came to draw up a constitution, they drew one up which was in substance English, and the violent struggle which ensued over its adoption was a struggle between the new American democracy and those who wished to preserve in it as far as possible the continuity of English development. The memory of the Revolution was still so fresh, and hatred of England ran so high, that it was only by a miracle of moderation and wisdom that the difficulties of the time were tided over. It is clear now, however, that the divergence between the policy of the governing classes in England and the hopes and aspirations of the new democracy here made any permanent understanding with

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England out of the question, and the decline of the Federal party opened the way for the war—the war of 1812—in which the old quarrel burnt itself out.

Forty years later it seemed as if a new basis for a good understanding between the two countries had been reached. The questions raised by the two previous wars had all been settled, intercourse between America and England had become close and constant, and the dominance of the Southern politicians in the Democratic party seemed for the time to make us all the better friends. They were all free-traders, and, what is more, had a constituency of large landholders behind them, and there was a certain resemblance between the Southern plantation proprietor and the English owner of a great estate. "Society" in Washington, New York, and Boston had a half-avowed belief that this resemblance went very deep; all "travelling Englishmen" of the day were told so. It was the period of Anglo-American Arctic discovery, of the early attempts to lay an Atlantic cable, of the Prince of Wales's visit, and of the great turnout in his honor.

These cordial relations had a dark side, for there was slavery still in possession of our Government — a very un-English institution—and the democratic masses appeared, to judge from the press, to side with the Sepoys against the English in India, and with the Russians against the English in the Crimean war. Nevertheless, the drawing together of the two peoples was vastly more real than that of 1794, and England's greatest poet gave expression to a feeling that was deep and genuine, in lines that remain to-day the handsomest compliment ever paid by one great country to another:

> "Gigantic daughter of the West,
> We drink to you across the flood.
> We know you and we love you best,
> For are you not of English blood?
> You must not mix our Queen with those
> That wish to keep their people fools;
> Our Freedom's foemen are her foes,
> She comprehends the race she rules.
> Hands all round!
> God the tyrants' cause confound!
> To our great kinsmen of the West, my friends,
> And the great cause of Freedom round and round."

This period produced the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, an instrument destined to have more lasting effects than the Jay treaty. This time there was no popular anti-treaty movement, but much general jubilation on both sides of the ocean.

Our civil war immediately followed, and on top of it the agitation for Irish reform, which brought to the front a question of politics specially adapted to inflame the passions of both countries. In the war we learned that there was still a strong party in England that disliked the strength and stability of our government, and the very people in England who had talked so much about freedom we found could defend the cause of slavery. The *Alabama* destroyed our commerce, and as long as the Irish agitation was in an acute stage, a bid here for the Irish vote could be made only by professions of deadly hostility to England. It must be admitted that until very recently the old idea that Canada ought to be, must be, and some day should be an integral part of the Union, formed part of the intellectual inheritance of a large body of our politicians.

And now these causes of bitterness have all been removed, and within the last twenty-five years many new causes of friendliness have made their appearance. One of the first signs of the change was, curiously enough, that Anglomania which, when it first appeared in the fashionable world here, was ridiculed as a silly whim of people who had nothing better to think about than foreign ways. It was, however, really a small indication that people of wealth and leisure here had begun for the third time to turn to England with sympathy. And this time the *rapprochement* has been popular on both sides. The old anti-American feeling in England has died out with the democratization of the suffrage and the disappearance of the old aristocratic type of statesman.

The talk about an "alliance" with England is a bit of mediæval claptrap for which there is no warrant in the history of either country. Alliances are made between dynasties and despots, not free peoples. Treaties we have made with England in the past, and, no doubt, shall continue to make in future. To the fact that the immediate existing cause of the popular international friendliness is the outbreak of a war with Spain, too much importance may be attached. The great point is that time has blotted out most of the causes of difference, and commerce, trade, and an increasing similarity of institutions are every year drawing us nearer together. There is no longer any great anti-English party in this country, and there is no longer any anti-American party in England. In this, "imperialism" plays no part, and, in fact, what the English promoters of good will with us need most to understand is that "imperialist" is in nine cases out of ten only a fine name for an ex-Anglophobe politician or journalist who is beginning to see his mistake.

GETTING GOOD JUDGES.

The announcement of the Citizens' Union that it intends to "nominate or secure the nominations" of candidates for judgeships is specially significant in view of the fact that the Bar Association, after long neglect, has taken the matter up at the same time. We shall not weary our readers with going over the old ground of judicial nominations, and the importance of having good men for judges, and the evils of the present system; but it is, perhaps, worth while to point out that, for certain very clear reasons, picking out good candidates for judges ought to be easier work than in the case of any other offices.

In determining upon candidates for legislative or for executive office, there is usually no certain standard which can be applied, and hence a party of organization, even when desirous of doing its best, cannot tell in advance whether the nominee will succeed or not. Whether a man will make a good member of the Legislature or not is usually found out only by trying him, and in nine cases out of ten he is far from proving special fitness. Very often it is impossible to tell in advance whether he reaches the standard of common honesty, or will not use his place to make money out of it. In the Low campaign the Citizens' Union found it extremely difficult to recommend candidates for the State Legislature, on this account. When it comes to candidates for such places as Mayor or Comptroller, it is comparatively easy to find men sufficiently conspicuous to make a creditable appearance on the stump, but there cannot be said to be any *class* of men from whom mayors or comptrollers may be safely taken. If a list of the mayors of New York and other cities for the past twenty-five years is gone over, we see at a glance how often it happens that men from whom the greatest things have been expected turn out weak nonentities, and that men from whom very little is expected turn out to have just that assemblage of qualities which is needed in a good administrator. When it comes to nominating a President, although we are always talking about "Presidential timber," as if we knew very well in advance just what we wanted, we find on examination that what is meant is merely the most conspicuous politicians within the range of choice, and that it rarely happens that conspicuous service in subordinate executive positions is even thought of as furnishing a test of fitness. Mr. Cleveland is the only President in recent times who mounted by successive executive steps to the Presidency. Once in a hundred years a Washington or a Lincoln may appear, but there is no class of Washingtons and Lincolns—and never will be.

With nominations for judicial office the case is quite different. Not only are the qualifications technical and professional, so that nine-tenths of the community are excluded from the competition at the outset, but the keen natural selection of the bar forces to the front a small and specially trained class of men, who are not only fit, but are the only fit men to go on the bench. It is unnecessary to mention names. Any competent committee of the bar could agree in half an hour on a list of a dozen lawyers, conspicuous in having made

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their mark solely by force of intellect and character—real leaders, actively engaged in practice before the judges now on the bench, and constituting a class from which nominations for judgeships ought inevitably to be made. This has always been so, and explains Franklin's proposal that the bar should have the power of appointing judges. Something like his scheme has worked itself out in England, where judges are nominally appointed by the Crown, but are really selected by the Lord Chancellor, himself a representative of the bar.

The absurdity of our system of picking out candidates for judgeships has consisted in the fact that it has been managed so as to insure the passing-by of conspicuous lawyers, and the taking of candidates from the ranks of the obscure and presumptively totally unfit. No man can make a first-rate judge who is inferior in learning and experience to those who practise before him; and yet this inferiority is what our system so often guarantees. To get a nomination from a political party it has been hitherto necessary either to pay for it or to get friends to pay for it, or, at the very best, to get it by the favor of those who expect judicial complaisance in return. But men in the only professional class from which judges should be picked out will neither pay, nor get their friends to pay, nor curry favor for a nomination. They will not do so because they are already in the receipt of good incomes, practically secured to them as long as they choose to practise, and hence are independent. No self-respecting and respected man will give up his independence to solicit a position in which the salary is very likely lower than his professional income, and in which his future will be more or less dependent on the dubious favor of a "boss" or a convention of politicians. It is a case where the position must come to him, if at all, and he must be compelled by public recognition of his standing to take it.

We are not talking of any ideal scheme; we merely have in mind the sort of judge who gets on the bench in England, and the system of selection which made judges of lawyers like Kent, Marshall, and Story in this country, and would, with any natural system of nomination, make judges of men of the same standing to-day. For every one knows that the material is at hand. Though the bar has deteriorated, and the lamentation that it has ceased to be a profession and has become a trade, is often heard, this is in great measure due to the decline of the bench, which, in some instances, has sunk below the level of the bar itself. The conspicuous lawyers who might be made into judges abound, but judges will seldom be selected from this class by the agency of "machine" nominations. Volunteers alone can be relied on to nominate leaders of the bar for judges, and they cannot begin too soon. The difficulty is not in knowing who ought to go on the bench, but in opening the way. If those who have taken the matter up wait until the autumn, they will find it closed by the usual machine-made nominations of second-rate men, against whom no stand can be taken, though every one, including themselves, knows them to have been drawn from a class in which the really fit men are not found.

HOME RULE IN NEBRASKA.

The current discussion regarding schemes for State interference in the government of New York city lends especial interest to a deliverance on the general subject of municipal home rule from the Supreme Court of Nebraska. The Legislature last year attempted to take away from the people of Omaha the control of the Fire and Police Departments in the chief city of the State, but the highest judicial tribunal has just decided that the act is unconstitutional.

The Populists swept Nebraska in the election of 1896, choosing their candidate for Governor by a majority of over 21,000, and also securing a large majority in each branch of the Legislature. This body passed a law conferring authority upon the Governor to appoint Fire and Police Commissioners in cities of the metropolitan class, which was especially aimed at the business centre of the State. The framers of the act made the usual pretence of desiring to substitute "non-partisan" commissions for those appointed by a Mayor chosen by one political organization, and the regulation arguments were urged, that the effect would be to divorce the Police and Fire Departments from politics, and enforce business methods in their management. But the Populist Governor abused his power by appointing as commissioners only men of his own party, and under the Police Commission the very abuses sought to be avoided increased until they became intolerable.

The friends of good government sought relief by an appeal to the Supreme Court, upon the contention that the commission act was in conflict with the Constitution of the State, and they have won their case. The decision laid down at the start the broad principle that to justify the courts in declaring a statute invalid it is not essential that it should contravene some express provision of the Constitution; "if the act is inhibited by the general scope and purpose of the fundamental law, it is as invalid as though forbidden by the letter of that instrument." The court proceeded along the same line of reasoning in regard to the bill of rights in the Nebraska Constitution, holding that this "is not an enumeration of all the powers reserved to the people of this State," but that "a statute is unconstitutional and void which is repugnant to the rights, expressed or implied, retained by the people."

Building upon these foundations, the court applied the principles here enunciated to the case in hand. It declared that the right of local self-government in cities and towns—*i. e.*, the power of citizens thereof to govern themselves as to matters purely local in their nature through officers of their own selection—existed in the State at the time the present Constitution was framed, and was not surrendered upon the adoption of that instrument, but is vested in the people of the respective municipalities, and the Legislature is powerless to take it away. One of the rights thus vested in the people of any municipality is the right to maintain a Fire and a Police Department, and this right "is to be exercised by them without legislative interference, except to the extent that the lawmaking body may prescribe rules to aid the people of the municipalities in the exercise of such right." From all this it naturally followed that the act in question, in so far as it assumed to confer authority upon the Governor to appoint Fire and Police Commissioners in cities of the metropolitan class, is void, "as being an unlawful attempt to deprive the people of such cities of the right of local self-government."

The three judges were not unanimous in this conclusion. One of them stoutly maintained that the act was a constitutional use of legislative power. He pointed out that it was not contended by anybody that the law was in contravention of any express provision of the Constitution prescribing how municipal officers must be appointed, but only that it denied a right of local self-government which exists independently of the Constitution, upon principles which are recognized in the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Constitution, and are illustrated in the evolution of our forms of government, State and national. He recalled a previous decision by the same court that the lawmaking body may legislate upon any subject not inhibited by the Constitution, and argued that no sufficient reasons for reversing this position had been advanced. The two judges whose views prevailed admitted that this previous decision was "diametrically opposed to the conclusion reached" by them, and confessed that it was a mistake, calling attention also to the fact that it is the only assertion of such wrong doctrine ever made by the court.

Whatever lawyers may think of the opposing legal considerations urged by the majority and minority of the court, the general public will heartily applaud this stout defence by the majority of the principle of home rule:

"The rule announced in the previous decision [sustaining the constitutionality of such legislation] is not only wrong, but is far-reaching in its consequences. The le-

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gislation which that opinion sustains tended to take from the people one of their reserved powers, the right of local self-government, one of the principles upon which our State fabric rests. If the Legislature may authorize the Governor to appoint a Fire and Police Commission for cities of the metropolitan class, then there is nothing to prevent the lawmakers from taking from every city and town in the State the power to choose all of the local officers thereof except police judges, which position is made elective by the Constitution, and empower the Governor to appoint all municipal officers except the one just named. The mind revolts when the doctrine is carried to its legitimate extent. The denial to the people of the right to govern themselves is undemocratic, and if such doctrine is enforced, we could no longer boast of a government of the people, for the people, and by the people."

There can be no question that this embodies a popular feeling as to the wisdom and necessity of municipal home rule, which is steadily gaining strength throughout the country. The time is fast coming when the people everywhere will insist that this right shall be safeguarded in their constitutions, beyond danger of any disturbance.

GOVERNMENT BY SUB-COMMITTEE.

WASHINGTON, June 14, 1898.

A United States Senator, during the present session of Congress, in arguing for an increase in the amount to be carried by the fortifications-appropriation bill, said:

"The sub-committee upon fortifications in another place [*scilicet*, the House of Representatives] was composed of Representatives of three interior States which had no seacoast whatever to guard. They were not very enthusiastic over fortifications, because theirs were not seacoast States."

In this statement, involving a violation of the parliamentary rule prohibiting reference to the proceedings in the other branch of Congress, is implied the existence of one of the most striking institutional features of the government of the United States. Broadly speaking, it is emphatically true at this time that the power of Congress is exercised through sub-committees. The familiar daily inquiry at Washington among all who are interested in pending legislation is, "Who is on the sub-committee?"

The committee system is the product of conditions open enough to view. If Congress, in the ordinary course of affairs, could master the facts and arguments necessary for the formation of opinion, without the aid of committees, there would be none. That body, owing to its size, early found it impossible to familiarize itself with the details of the business before it, and the committee system was founded. For the same reason the committees have more and more, during the last twenty years, subdivided, and through still smaller bodies collected the materials requisite for shaping opinion upon the complex and immensely varied concerns of the United States as a people. The preposterousness of an attempt by a full committee to draft numerous appropriation bills, for instance, or to examine other kinds of bills after they are introduced, is so well recognized at the present time that when the distinguished chairman of one of the great committees of the House was lately asked a question as to the development of the sub-committee system, he could not or would not speculate or theorize on the subject, and simply said, "Of course we have sub-committees"; repeating, "Of course we have sub-committees."

If the facts collected and the conclusions arrived at were actually canvassed by the *full committee*, the sub-committee would still enjoy much power. Its members would be familiar with the testimony at first hand. The other members must take the facts as they are consciously or unconsciously colored in passing through the minds of those who, in person, examined witnesses and documents, who had gone minutely into the details of the pending question, who were the recipients of many whispered unrecorded confidences from persons friendly or unfriendly to the measure. If, in addition, it should appear that a body of usages had grown up regulating the practice of a sub-committee in its relations with the larger body, substantially similar in character to those usages which govern the committee's relations with the House; if the power of the sub-committee over the committee should be found to be as great as the committee's power over the House, we should be brought face to face with a collection of still smaller "legislatures," as described by Senator Hoar, and these would stand forth as the actual governing force in Congress. This is precisely what has happened in the case of nearly all the important committees of the House and in a number of the most important of the Senate. The future student of Congressional government must find his clue to the methods of transacting public business not in the committees, but in the sub-committees of the committees.

How do sub-committes arise? If the bills ordinarily referred to a committee are similar in character, the sub-committees are formed on the simple principle of subdivision. Thus, there are six sub-committees of the Judiciary Committee of the House in the Fifty-fifth Congress. These are numbered consecutively, and consist of three members, care being taken to place on each one two members of the dominant party, to insure partisan control. The Judiciary has two additional sub-committees, one on bankruptcy legislation and another on United States Court bills. Other examples of sub-committees that are simply numbered are those of the Committee on Banking and Currency, one, two three, and four, and of the Committee on Invalid Pensions, one, two, three, four, and five. Still another example serves well to show the growth of the system. The Committee on Elections, during the Fifty-fourth Congress, had its work apportioned among three standing committees, one, two, and three; already one of these has found it necessary to adopt the practice of using sub-committees in its work.

Where the subjects to be investigated are varied, and each investigation may require much time, the business of a committee falls more naturally into the hands of those members specially well qualified to consider it. The Committee on Ways and Means of the House is of this character and has six sub-committees, as follows: (1) customs, customs districts, and customs officials; (2) administration of customs laws; (3) internal revenue; (4) the public debt, the preservation of the public credit, and redemption of Government notes; (5) reciprocity and commercial treaties; (6) revenue from other sources and excises, and on miscellaneous subjects.

The Committee on Appropriations of the House considers through sub-committees (1) the general deficiency, (2) District of Columbia appropriations, (3) fortifications, (4) legislative, judicial, and executive appropriations, (5) pensions, (6) sundry civil affairs.

The Committee on the Military has seven sub-committees: (1) Army organization and appropriations, (2) the Military Academy, battlefields, monuments, medals, etc., (3) soldiers' homes and national cemeteries, (4) voluntary muster, bounty, and pay, (5) arsenals, barracks, and military reservations, (6) retirements, restorations, and reliefs, (7) desertions. The last sub-committee is still further divided into sections "A" and "B."

The Committee on Naval Affairs also has seven: (1) appropriations for the naval establishment; (2) organization, rank and pay; (3) ordnance and navy-yards; (4) construction, repairs, and steam-engineering; (5) navigation, equipment, supplies, and miscellaneous; (6) Naval Academy and Marine Corps; (7) private bills.

The Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce has nine: (1) interstate commerce; (2) foreign commerce; (3) canals; (4) quarantine; (5) bridges; (6) telegraphs; (7) ships and shipping; (8) life-saving service; (9) lighthouses.

The Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads likewise has nine: (1) appropriations and revision of laws; (2) claims, salaries, and miscellaneous; (3) railway mail service; (4) free delivery service; (5) post-office buildings; (6) postal telegraph and telegraph service; (7) postal savings banks; (8) foreign mail service; (9) postage and contracts.

The Committee on Agriculture has six: (1) appropriations; (2) Department of Agriculture; (3) Bureau of Animal Industry; (4) farm and dairy products, seeds, and plants; (5) Agricultural Experiment Stations; (6) miscellaneous business.

The Committee on the District of Columbia has six, and, as might have been expected, these reflect the character of a municipal council. They are: (1) judiciary; (2) ways and means; (3) education, labor, and charities; (4) street railways; (5) steam railways; (6) incorporations.

In the Senate the system has not been as long established as in the House, but is developing rapidly, and in some instances perfect examples are furnished. The Senate Committee on Appropriations, the most powerful committee in Congress, many years since found it imperative to work through smaller organizations, and for every sub-committee on appropriations in the House, though these represeut seven different important committees, there are seven corresponding sub-committees in the Senate made up from the single Committee on Appropriations; while for the six bills the House Committee on Appropriations retains in its control there are six corresponding sub-committees in the Senate constituted from the one main committee. Senate sub-committees accordingly deal with appropriation bills affecting the Department of Agriculture, the army, deficiencies, diplomatic and consular affairs, the District of Columbia, fortifications, the Indians, the legislative, judicial, and executive departments, the Military Academy, the navy, pensions, the post-office, and sundry civil affairs. This great committee of the Senate may be fairly said to approximate in influence the Ministry in the Commons. Its power naturally atttaches to itself more power, and the tendency is for the

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Senate, rather than to lessen its duties, to impose other and more varied cares upon it. The desperate chance that any given measure proposing a novel appropriation will survive in the general Congressional vortex induces many members in both branches to trust the fortunes of individual propositions to this commanding Senate committee. And, indeed, when the "corded bales" it returns to the House are undone and displayed there, strangely alien contents are oftentimes revealed. It is enough to say, as to the influence of the Senate sub-committees, that the bills as reported from them are in nearly every instance printed before submission to the larger body, and the bills as thus printed, with the reports thereon, are delivered without change to the Senate itself. The findings of the sub-committees thus become in the end the findings of the Senate.

Without adverting to the work of other Senate committees, like those on Military Affairs, the Navy, or the District of Columbia, which operate largely through sub-committees raised to consider particular bills, it will be sufficient to notice the practice of the Committee on Commerce in that body. Here we have the phase of a sub-committee of a sub-committee. The standing committee is divided into sub-committees on (1) ships and shipping; (2) lighthouses, monuments, buoys, etc.; (3) life-saving stations and service; (4) bridges; (5) nominations. The last sub-committee consists of seven members, and to each of these members, by a special order of the sub-committee, are assigned for consideration nominations from given States lying in the section of the country nearest the State the particular Senator represents.

Some of the consequences of the establishment of the sub-committee system will be apparent. Confining ourselves to the House, the Speaker, in naming chairmen of committees, names lesser speakers, who preside over bodies where formal debates are common, and yea and nay votes are not unknown. These lesser speakers divide the power conferred on the body over which they preside, by naming sub-committees, each having its own chairman. These sub-committees are the real eyes, ears, and hands of the House. There is the same anxiety among members to be favored in assignment to sub-committees that there is to gain nominations to the committee itself, and the same influences are brought to bear to win chosen places. The chairman of the sub-committee ordinarily, almost invariably, reports the bill he has had in charge to the House, and is its manager on the floor. He and his associates on the sub-committee are naturally best qualified to debate it, and they enjoy all the prestige arising from a greater familiarity with the facts underlying the proposed measure. That a Representative is a member of the committee reporting a bill is something in the judgment of the House; it is far more if he is in addition a member of the sub-committee that collected and massed the pertinent facts.

This predominance of the sub-committee in the national legislature will perhaps compel a recasting of opinion upon the character and efficiency of the work accomplished there. It will be found, I apprehend, that while Congress is thus shown to be more open to sinister approach than is commonly thought possible, there are, under the new system, far greater opportunities for strong, resourceful men, with skill in initiation, to impress their ideas upon legislation. Instead of the cumbrous machinery of a large committee, consisting oftentimes of seventeen or nineteen members, we have for the use of men of this character a small, virile body of two, three, or five men that approach a single executive in capacity to master and direct affairs.

THOMAS H. CLARK.

EDWARD BURNE-JONES.

LONDON, June 20, 1898.

With Sir Edward Burne-Jones, we have lost not only a man of distinct personality, but one of the last links connecting us with a very adventurous and important period in the history of modern English art. Of the original Pre-Raphaelites Mr. Holman Hunt, it is true, remains. But William Morris and Burne-Jones, the disciples, did more to popularize nineteenth-century mediævalism and bring about the Gothic revival than the Pre-Raphaelites themselves; and with the death, within so short a space of time, of these two men, who were in close sympathy both as artists and friends, we seem to close the chapter opened so brilliantly by Rossetti and Millais, and introduced so naïvely by Ford Madox Brown.

The picturesqueness of the period with which Burne-Jones's name is intimately associated has had much to do in making him so picturesque a figure to-day. Of his life as a man we know comparatively little; whatever private romance may have been his, he has not as yet been forced, like poor Rossetti, to share it with all the world; whatever expression he may have given to his political or social convictions, he never, like Morris, made public profession of faith in Trafalgar Square and Hyde Park. But of his career as an artist, each successive step or stage is familiar to us, and each in turn has its picturesque quality. We have a glimpse of the youth sacrificing the church to art under the spell of Rossetti's drawing of the "Maids of Elfin Mere," and hurrying up to London to worship the master through the thick smoke-clouds and amidst the irreverent chatter of the drawing-class at the Workingmen's College. We see him later on established at Red Lion Square, one of the valiant Crusaders who were to save the world so as by mediæval tables and chairs and housemaids. Next, he appears at the Grosvenor Gallery, the very spirit of that æstheticism which took the town by storm and perished gayly in the "greenery-yallery" songs of the Savoy and the Postlethwaite of *Punch*. His experience with the Academy was not as other men's, for he was elected without his petitioning for the honor in the manner then required, I believe; and he resigned with unparalleled promptness when he discovered he was not to become at once a full-fledged Academician. By one solitary painting, his "Mermaid," has he been represented on the Academy walls; and his pictures, in their subjects, have always confirmed the picturesqueness of his attitude as Independent. The most beautiful and lovely of the old myths and legends have furnished him with so many of his motives that you find a French critic like M. de la Sizeranne beginning the criticism of his work with a long recital of the story of King Arthur and the Knights of Camelot.

I think this element of picturesqueness in his career and in his subjects must necessarily prove misleading in any estimate of his work by his contemporaries. I have felt this especially the last day or two when every London paper has been publishing, at greater or less length, a biography and an appreciation. In one panegyric he figures as the Pre-Raphaelite; in another, his influence upon the younger generation, both at home and abroad, is loudly vaunted. But he was not a Pre-Raphaelite—that is, in the sense history has now come to give to the term. He was a follower, a disciple, a worshipper of the Pre-Raphaelites, more particularly of Rossetti, and he borrowed from them that which was least essential in their artistic creed; if Pre-Raphaelitism were the religion the enthusiast likes to think it, I should say that he had ignored the dogma and appropriated the ceremonial. Mediævalism of subject and mediævalism of treatment were what appealed to him, and Rossetti showed him the way. Burne-Jones originated nothing; but, as so often happens, the world recognized in the copy the beauty it had failed to discern in the original. Deaf to the music, it heard first the echo—a very beautiful, rhythmical echo, to be sure, but still not the music itself. Burne-Jones simply reaped where Rossetti had sown. He not only was fortunate enough with Rossetti to obtain munificent private patrons, but he became the attraction of a public gallery; his name was as good an advertisement for a picture show as that of Sir Henry Irving for a theatre. He was made a baronet. And he was also known and famous on the Continent, where Rossetti, during his lifetime, was never appreciated. His work was welcomed in the Champ-de-Mars Salons, it was bought for the Luxembourg, he could wear the ribbon of the Legion of Honor, he was foreign member of the Dresden Academy.

His success was official as well as artistic, and in this success the world fancied it saw the triumph of Pre-Raphaelitism. But to look upon him, therefore, as an influence in the development of modern art is hardly warranted by fact. Because he succeeded, because he brought mediævalism into fashion, he was not necessarily a force in the schools or the studios. He in his turn had his handful of followers, for there is nothing certain young painters admire more than popular or financial success. But his following has already dwindled. He has had no effect upon the art of the day as Manet or Monet has had, as Whistler or Degas. He has been held responsible for the mysticism of the moment, but it is more than likely that had Burne-Jones never existed, we still should have had our group of mystics. They have come with the inevitable swing-back of the pendulum: after the interval of realism or naturalism, when the truths recorded by the painter alone were thought to matter, we have merely returned once more to the doctrine that individuality in the artist is the one thing that counts. The young men of 1830 developed their individuality by "frightening the bourgeois"; the young men of 1890 develop theirs by posing as mystics. Burne-Jones may have suggested the form in which a few have found utterance for their mysticism, but without him they still would have been mystics.

The difficulty is that his own absorption in his subjects helped his critics to forget to look for anything else in his work. The

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search for the inner meaning of his symbols, the preoccupation with his esoteric reading of the well-known myth, left no time for the consideration of his pictures as pictures. He has been studied as if he were a poet or philosopher, who, by chance, had exchanged ordinary words for a new picture language, and his influence has been measured accordingly. All the melancholy and folly of our age M. de la Sizeranne, for instance, discovers concealed in his wan maidens and languid knights and anæmic angels; though future generations probably will see only a curious exotic revival—an isolated phenomenon.

I say this with no intention to disparage or depreciate his art, for I think Burne-Jones has suffered more than most artists from the nonsense written about him. His faults have been exaggerated into virtues, until the true charm of his work is in danger of being overlooked altogether. For that it has charm cannot be denied. One may dislike his methods, one may be struck with his indifference to the painter's problems, one may think his technique abominable. But if the means were illegitimate, if it is impossible to speak of him as a colorist in the same breath with the masters, old or modern, still he did fill many of his pictures with a gorgeousness, a glory of color that would amply atone for more serious blemishes. His early water-colors, shown a few years ago in the retrospective exhibition in the new gallery and seen now and then at Christie's, are little gems. And the splendor of a picture like the "Chant d'Amour," with its reminiscences of Giorgione, does not soon fade even in memory. In later designs he often tried schemes of color as languid and morbid as his figures, with less beauty in the results. I remember in the interesting exhibition to which I have just referred, I could not but feel how much he had sacrificed to the morbidness of vision that increased with his years. But there is another charm in his work that did not grow less with time—I mean its decorative charm. All good pictures are decorative, of course. But his were so in a more purely conventional way. He used color and line and form as arbitrarily as the designer of carpets and wall-papers. His every picture seemed a part of some decorative scheme, as much out of place in a frame as the large mural paintings by Puvis de Chavannes when you see them at the Salons. I suppose this is why he was most successful in his tapestries and stained glass and mosaics, or in the series arranged to ornament a definite room or wall space. Something of the same decorative quality is revealed in his studies, his frequently very beautiful drawings in colored chalks on tinted paper. In these, it has been pointed out, he is seen to best advantage; his mannerisms are not so obvious, and he is not restricted, as in elaborate paintings, by his technical limitations.

So much has been written in praise of his studies, they have been so often shown, so often reproduced, that the wonder is his drawings made for illustrations are comparatively little known. They have not been so many, though they extend over his entire working career. There are one or two in *Good Words*, he was among the contributors to Dalziel's 'Bible,' and then there are the more recent designs for the books and publications of William Morris. In the reproductions, they might be accepted as proof that he shared with Morris and Walter Crane, and with equal ardor, the belief that the first essential of book illustration is its decorative fitness. But I have seen the originals of the Chaucer series, and in them he shows no thought or care for the mechanical relations and conditions which should be the first consideration of the illustrator. The drawings are in lead pencil, the line delicate, the tone silvery, totally unlike the thick black outlines admirably rendered in Mr. Hooper's wood blocks. Indeed, I understand that they were redrawn by Mr. Fairfax Murray, Mr. Catterson Smith, and other draughtsmen before they were delivered over to the engravers. The designs were but suggestions, and no doubt Burne-Jones meant them to be nothing more. But I must confess that if to meet certain mechanical requirements the artist's work must pass through a double translation or interpretation before it can appear on the printed page, I should rather dispense with such perfect mechanical harmony. There is a screw loose somewhere in the theory of decoration that makes the original artist the least important factor in its production.

Burne-Jones, with all his faults, with all his mannerisms and affectations, is too true an artist to be subordinated to his interpreter for the sake of theory. During his lifetime his genius may have been overrated. Now that he is dead, there may come a reaction—a period when he will be unduly neglected, as other and greater men than he have been. But I think when the time arrives to estimate him at his worth and to assign him his due rank among the English artists of the nineteenth century, he must be remembered as a painter of distinction and style and charm who was independent enough to choose his own masters, and serious enough to continue faithful to them to the last; a decorator who, if misled by his ideals, never stooped to the commonplace or the vulgar. He and William Morris both had the rare good fortune, from the beginning, to meet with worldly success in the pursuance of the artistic aims and the objects they had set up for themselves. They never swerved from the straight path as they saw it; it should be added that they were never tempted.

N. N.

VOLTAIRE AND THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.—I.

PARIS, June 16, 1898.

The Duke de Broglie expends in the field of history and literature an activity which he can no longer expend in politics. It is certainly extraordinary that no place could have been found for him in the Chamber of Deputies or in the Senate; in England parties are not so intolerant, and it is felt by all that the interest of the country demands the presence in the legislative assemblies of statesmen who have devoted their lives to the service of their country, however they may differ in principles. We have not yet arrived at this state of political equilibrium, and the Duke de Broglie has ample leisure for his studies. In a recent work, 'The Austrian Alliance,' he set forth the causes which provoked, in the second half of the eighteenth century, the declaration of hostility between France and Prussia that culminated in the Seven Years' War. He now gives us another volume under the title, 'Voltaire before and during the Seven Years' War.'

Voltaire's name will always possess an attraction in itself. In his last researches, the Duke de Broglie was surprised to find it nowhere; in his preceding studies, whenever he had to treat of the relations of the Government of Louis XV. with the great Frederick, he had regularly found it. The intervention of Voltaire was constantly claimed by the representatives of France, ministers or ambassadors; he often offered it spontaneously; for, as the Duke de Broglie says,

"this marvellous mind, endowed with an indefatigable and universal activity, was never content to consecrate itself wholly to letters or to philosophy. He had all his lifetime the temptation and the desire to meddle with public affairs, and, rightly or wrongly, he never doubted his aptitude for taking part in them. This pretension, which in an ordinary man of letters would have gone singularly counter to the usages of the time, seemed justified in Voltaire on account of his familiar relations with the King of Prussia, and by the confidence which seemed to be placed in him by the uneasy and uncomfortable ally whose designs France had constantly to watch and to penetrate. This royal friendship seemed to assure him a credit which he liked to talk about, and which at various times, in the interest of the State, he was asked to use."

If Voltaire's political influence seemed to have come suddenly to an end (and the Duke de Broglie tried to discover the reason why), it was not because Voltaire ceased to take an interest in the political events of his time, or because he grew more indifferent to them; it was merely, if the Duke de Broglie is right, because he fell completely out of favor with Louis XV. The King of France, who knew how to keep his secrets, resolved from a certain time not to have anything more to do with Voltaire. "Was it," asks the Duke de Broglie, "from a religious scruple that Louis XV. refused to have any communication with a philosopher whose opinions wounded his faith? People would hesitate to blame him, though it might be remarked that Richelieu and even the virtuous Father Joseph had not shown themselves so difficult in the choice of the instruments which they employed for their designs, and that, in a royal household where Madame de Pompadour was sovereign, there were, perhaps, more pressing problems of conscience to solve." Louis XV.'s repugnance was of recent date. After Frederick's advent to the throne, Voltaire was charged by the Cardinal de Fleury to present his compliments to the new King. Three years after, Fleury was dead and Frederick was the conqueror of Silesia. Voltaire feigned to exile himself because he had not been elected to the French Academy, and went to Berlin. He entered into very intimate relations with the King, and it is very likely that they did not restrict themselves to the discussion of literary matters. On his return from Berlin, Voltaire was appointed historiographer to the King and *gentilhomme de la chambre;* he became a sort of royal laureate, and celebrated in prose and verse the victories of Fontenoy and of Lawfeld. He had two powerful protectors, Madame de Pompadour and the Marquis d'Argenson, who employed Voltaire's pen in various circumstances.

In his character of a courtier Voltaire was, on the whole, a failure; as the Duke de Broglio says:

"The natural superiority of which he was

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conscious, as he could not help showing, was ill-appreciated in this factitious environment. The easy grace, abounding in happy repartee and ingenious strokes, which was the charm of his conversation, was also what gave it an air of familiarity; a little reserve would have pleased more, as attesting a juster sentiment of the honor due to such a company. This vague discontent was especially felt by the King. Not that Voltaire, on the rare occasions on which he approached the royal person, ever broke the rules of profound and even rather humble deference imposed by etiquette; not that he ever forgot that the first duty of a King's historiographer is to be his panegyrist. Neither was it, as Condorcet says, because the praises of a man of genius touch only kings who love glory, but rather because the art of pleasing is learnt like any other art."

There is an incident which shows well that the liberty of praise implies the liberty of blame, and that a certain excess of praise often involves a little irony. The "Temple de la Gloire" was represented at Versailles; the verses were by Voltaire, the music by Rameau. The Emperor Trajan appeared in it, crowned with laurel, and giving peace to the world after his triumphs. When the piece had come to an end, Voltaire approached the royal box, expecting to receive some compliment. He inquired of the Duke de Richelieu, who was a few steps from the King, "Is Trajan satisfied?" The King turned round with a frown, and looked straight at Voltaire without saying a word.

Voltaire was better received at Lunéville and at Nancy, by the old King Stanislas, the father of Maria Leszczynska. He was taken to Lorraine by his friend, Madame du Châtelet, who died suddenly at Lunéville, after her confinement. Voltaire offered, some time afterwards, to Frederick, to make a visit to Berlin. "I am," said he, in a letter written May 8, 1750, "in a sad state; but, after all, I prefer a hundred times to die near you than to live anywhere else." Then he explains that, though he is "rich, and even very rich for a man of letters," he needs money for the expenses of his journey. He offers to borrow the money from a banker in Paris having correspondents in Berlin, to whom the King might kindly send word that he would with pleasure see this advance made to Voltaire. Frederick understood, and immediately offered to draw a bill on a banker in Paris. He added to this fair offer some half-ironical verses on Jupiter and Danaë, and a few lines in prose: "You resemble Horace in liking to add the useful to the agreeable. As for myself, I think that pleasure would not be too highly paid for." Voltaire answered in verse:

> "Votre très-vieille Danaé
> Va quitter son petit ménage
> Pour le beau séjour étoilé
> Dont elle est indigne à son âge.
> L'or par Jupiter envoyé
> N'est pas l'objet de son envie.
> Elle aime d'un cœur dévoué
> Son Jupiter et non sa pluie."

The permission of the King of France was necessary. Louis XV. did not much like that Frederick II. of Prussia should give pensions to French writers and become their Mæcenas. Since Francis I., French sovereigns had always taken pride in the protection of letters. "What does Voltaire want? I have treated him as well as Louis XIV. treated Racine and Boileau. I have given him, as Louis XIV. did Racine, the post of gentleman of the bed-chamber and pensions; now he wants to be made a chamberlain and to take supper with a King. It is not the fashion in France; and as there are more wits and more *grands seigneurs* here than in Prussia, it would be necessary to have a very large table to treat them all." And he counted on his fingers Maupertuis, Fontenelle, Voltaire, La Mothe, Piron, Destouches, Montesquieu, the Cardinal de Polignac. "Your Majesty," said somebody, "forgets D'Alembert." "As well as Crébillon," said somebody else. "Why not Crébillon, junior? There are also the Abbé Prévost and D'Olivet." "Well," said the King, "for twenty-five years all these people would have dined with me." These details have been taken by the Duke de Broglie from the Souvenirs of Madame du Haussey, maid to Madame de Pompadour. When Voltaire asked for the King's permission, Louis XV. hardly allowed him to end his request, answering him coldly that he could go wherever he liked, and turning his back upon him. Madame de Pompadour asked him to present her compliments to Frederick. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. de Puisieulx, told Voltaire that he had no commission to give him.

Voltaire's reception at Berlin and Potsdam formed a great contrast to the coldness of Versailles. He was treated with the greatest honor; the King affected to see in him a personal friend. He gave him an apartment which had been occupied the year before in Berlin by Marshal Saxe; cooks, coachmen, servants of the palace were at his orders. At supper Voltaire often sat between the Queen and the Queen Dowager. "In a word," wrote Voltaire to his friend D'Argental (May 7, 1750), "the King feigned to love me. I myself believed that I loved him." To come to solid facts, the King offered Voltaire the post of chamberlain, with 20,000 francs income, and, besides, a life annuity of 4,000 francs for his niece, Mme. Denis, if she came to Berlin to keep Voltaire's house. It was necessary to obtain the consent of Louis XV. to this arrangement. A letter was written on the subject by the Prussian Minister in Paris, Baron de Chambrien; but the King took good care to add in his own hand, in a postscript: "This must be done without committing me, and if you have the slightest repugnance to doing it, you will declare that I renounce everything." When Louis XV. heard of Frederick's desire to keep Voltaire, he merely said: "I am glad of it; there will be one madman the less at my court and one more at his." But Voltaire was officially advised that he could not keep the office of historiographer to the King. He was allowed to keep the office of gentleman of the bed-chamber. The new historiographer appointed in his place was Duclos, the friend of Diderot and D'Alembert.

The surprise in France and in Europe was great when it became known that Voltaire had established himself in Berlin. He had to write many letters to defend his resolution. "Being no longer historiographer, I shall be all the better historian." The Duke de Broglie is of the opinion that the French Foreign Office would have done well to maintain unofficial relations with a man so well placed to understand the designs of a King determined to make himself a great place in history and to raise Prussia to the rank of a great Power. Frederick was still nominally, at the time, an ally of France; but his friendship was always of the most fragile sort. Secret negotiations were going on between London and Berlin:

"With such an association, with a partner who, answering no lead, seemed always ready to leave the game, was it not a piece of good fortune to have near him, invited by him, living in his palace, eating at his table, talking with him several hours daily, able to note his slightest words, to read his sentiments in the expression of his face, to meet him every hour, an observer and if necessary a go-between like Voltaire? Richelieu or Mazarin would surely have chosen him among a thousand, and would never have thought that they were paying too dear for him."

Correspondence.

THE BASIS OF CITIZENSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the case of United States vs. Wong Kim Ark (169 U. S., 649), the Supreme Court has interpreted that clause of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution which says, "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside."

Wong Kim Ark was born in California, the son of Chinese subjects who were domiciled residents of the United States. In 1894 he went to China for a temporary visit, and upon his return to the United States in 1895 the collector of customs refused him permission to land, on the ground that he was not an American citizen.

Mr. Justice Gray, in delivering the opinion of the court, lays down the principle that those parts of the Constitution which are not defined must be interpreted in the light of the common law, by which the place of birth was made the criterion of nationality. Every child born in England of alien parents is a natural-born subject, unless the child of an ambassador or other diplomatic agent of a foreign state, or of an alien enemy in hostile occupation of the place where the child was born. The court holds that this rule was in force in all the English colonies upon this continent down to the time of the Declaration of Independence, and in the United States afterwards, and continued to prevail under the Constitution as originally established; and that, prior to the adoption of the fourteenth amendment, all white children born in the United States, whether the offspring of citizens or of foreigners, excepting only children of ambassadors or of alien enemies in hostile occupation, were native-born citizens of the United States. The court accepts the natural conclusion of these premises, and holds that the children of Chinese subjects born in the United States must be considered as natural-born citizens; and Congress, while it may refuse to naturalize subjects of the Emperor of China, cannot withhold citizenship from the offspring of those subjects born in this country.

Mr. Chief Justice Fuller and Justice Harlan dissent from the conclusions of the majority, and maintain that the English common-law rule as to natural-born citizens was never in force in this country. In support of these views, the dissenting justices cite Story, 'Conflict of Laws,' sec. 48, "Persons who are born in a country are generally deemed to be citizens and subjects of that country. A reasonable qualification of the rule would seem to be that it should not apply to the children of parents who were *in itinere* in the country, or who were abiding there for temporary purposes." To the same effect Justice Miller says ('Lectures on the Constitution,' p. 279), "If a stranger or traveller passing through, or temporarily residing in, this country, who has not himself

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been naturalized, and who claims to owe no allegiance to our government, has a child born here which goes out of the country with its father, such child is not a citizen of the United States, because it was not subject to its jurisdiction."

The case turns upon the interpretation of the phrase, "subject to the jurisdiction thereof," and the weight of the argument seems to be with the dissenting justices. Jurisdiction is of two kinds—territorial and political. All persons within the bounds of the United States, whether natural-born, naturalized, domiciled aliens, or aliens *in itinere*, are subject to the territorial jurisdiction of the United States. But the same cannot be said as to its political jurisdiction. This is particularly true of Chinese subjects, because the laws expressly exclude them from American citizenship. As they are not subject to the political jurisdiction of the United States, and cannot become so, it would seem to follow that their children are not born "subject to the jurisdiction thereof."

The Supreme Court in previous decisions has admitted the validity of this argument. In the case of Elk vs. Wilkins (112 U. S. 94, 102), the court said, with respect to the phrase, "subject to the jurisdiction thereof":

"The evident meaning of these last words is, not merely subject in some respect or degree to the jurisdiction of the United States, but completely subject to their political jurisdiction, and owing them direct and immediate allegiance. . . . Indians born within the territorial limits of the United States, members of, and owing immediate allegiance to, one of the Indian tribes (an alien, though dependent, power), although in a geographical sense born in the United States, are no more 'born in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof,' within the meaning of the first section of the fourteenth amendment, than the children of subjects of any foreign Government born within the domain of that Government, or the children born within the United States of ambassadors or other public ministers of foreign nations."

Furthermore, in the practice of the United States as to naturalization, the common-law rule of citizenship has been disregarded. An essential part of the common-law rule is the doctrine of indelible allegiance, which has been summed up in the phrase, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman." This doctrine has been denied by the United States ever since the Declaration of Independence. The naturalization act of January 29, 1795, required that applicants for citizenship should not only take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, but should also renounce all other allegiance; and although Lord Grenville protested that such a renunciation would be highly criminal on the part of a British citizen, the United States held fast to its position, and in 1868 Congress declared that "the right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right of all people." This attitude toward the subject of expatriation, which has been so long and consistently maintained, would seem sufficient to show that the common-law rule of citizenship has never been recognized by this Government.

This decision, if it remains the authoritative interpretation of the fourteenth amendment, cannot fail to have important consequences. Its first effect is pointed out by Chief Justice Fuller, who says: "If the conclusion of the majority opinion is correct, then the children of citizens of the United States who have been born abroad since July 28, 1868, when the amendment was declared ratified, were, and are, aliens, unless they have, or shall, on attaining majority, become citizens by naturalization *in* the United States; and no statutory provision to the contrary is of any force or effect." More important consequences would follow in case of the annexation of Hawaii or the Philippines. Unless the natives of those islands are organized in tribes to which their first allegiance is due, all those born after the annexation of the islands to the United States would be citizens by birth, entitled by law to all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States.

From the point of view of public policy, the present decision of the Supreme Court seems to be a distinct retrogression. In this age of rapid transit and of large migratory populations, citizenship should have a more substantial basis than the ancient feudal doctrine of birth within the allegiance. Napoleon, with the progressive spirit which characterized him in the formation of his Code, discarded the *jus soli* in favor of the *jus sanguinis* as the determining principle in citizenship. Great Britain has abandoned the doctrine of indelible allegiance. Almost all nations now accord to their citizens the privilege of expatriation. In view of these considerations, the wisdom of the Supreme Court in giving to a doubtful clause a construction which is contrary to the manifest tendency of nations may well be questioned; and if the matter is again brought before the court, it will not be surprising if the present decision is reversed.

CARL EVANS BOYD.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, June 27, 1898.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE ALEXANDRIAN LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That we cordially recognize the great value of Prof. Bury's new edition of Gibbon's 'Roman Empire' is no reason why we should overlook such points in the editor's notes as invite criticism. One of these is the question of the destruction of the Alexandrian library, which is made the subject of an appendix (No. 11 in vol. iii.). Prof. Bury says (iii., 495) that

"The only evidence on which Gibbon's statement [that the library was destroyed by the Bishop Theophilus] rests is the sentence which he quotes from Orosius. But," continues the editor, "Orosius does not mention the Serapeum or speak of a large library. He merely says that he had seen bookcases in temples (which he does not name); and that, since then, he had been informed that the temples had been pillaged [by Christians] and the bookcases emptied. It seems to me highly improbable that Orosius is thinking either of the Alexandrian library or of the Serapeum. There is no reason to suppose that the library was *in* the temple. I conclude, then, that there is no evidence that the library of the Serapeum did not survive till the Saracen conquest."

Inasmuch as this conclusion is given as one of the few needful corrections in the work of our greatest historian, and as a modern verdict which sets Gibbon's aside, I think it worth while to point out that, despite Prof. Bury's opinion, the balance of probabilities is still in favor of Gibbon's position. There is, it is true, no direct statement extant, that the Serapeum library was destroyed in A. D. 391, but this is not the same as saying that "there is no evidence." In the case before us there is the strongest circumstantial evidence possible, and without the admission of such the writing of history would be an impossibility.

Orosius, in the passage referred to (vi., 15. 31-32), has just been giving an account of the supposed disaster to the "great library" in B. C. 48 (Orosis lived *c.* A. D. 416), and proceeds to say that even he had seen libraries in Alexandria despoiled of their contents. With Prof. Bury "it seems to me highly improbable that Orosius is thinking" either of the Museum or Serapeum library. In fact, while paraphrasing Livy (or copying from him verbatim), Orosius sees an opportunity, not to be let slip, of saying something on his own account. So, although it has nothing to do with the context, he introduces parenthetically some indefinite remarks about the destruction of books in Alexandria in his own day—for the simple reason that his calamity-loving soul could not forbear adding another casualty to his list. (*De cladibus et miseriis mundi* is one of the titles of his history.)

The library under discussion is described by Epiphanius (xi. 168), as being ἐν τῷ Σεραπείῳ, "in the Serapeum." Ammianus (xxii., 16. 12-13) speaks in admiration of the temple of Serapis (*in quo*) in which he says was a library of inestimable value. Aphthonius (*Progym.* xii., p. 107), going more into detail, says that "within the porticoes, compartments (σηκοὶ) are built, some of which are intended to serve as alcoves for books" (παρῳκοδόμηνται δὲ σηκοὶ τῶν στοῶν ἔνδοθεν, οἱ μὲν ταμεῖα γεγενημένοι ταῖς βίβλοις). Others of these small apartments were utilized for the shrines of the divinities associated with Serapis. Comparison with other descriptions of the Serapeum, analogy with other similar buildings whose arrangement is known, the weight of modern opinion (see for example, *Zeit. f. d. Alterthumswissenschaft*, 6: 389, Ebers, *Scrapis*, c. 18, etc.), all tend to strengthen the belief that Epiphanius and Ammianus meant what they said in stating that the library *was in* the temple of Serapis. There is but one other possibility, and that is suggested by the situation of the library at Pergamos, which has been excavated recently. There the library occupied rooms in a row of small buildings in close proximity to the temple, certainly too close for them to have escaped any hardship which may have befallen the more important edifice.

Turning, then, to the great catastrophe itself: the work of Sophronius on the Fall of Serapis has been lost, but the facts of the destruction of the temple are amply attested, being recorded by *Cod. Theod.* (xvi., 1. 2), Socrates (v., 16), Sozomen (vii., 15), Theodoret (v., 22), Zosimus (v., 23), Rufinus (xi., 22-30), Eunapius (*in vita Aedesii.* 77), Suidas (Ὀλυμπος. Σάραπις, Σταυροί) Marcellinus (*Chronicon*), Nicephorus Callistus (xii., 25), and no doubt by others. The temple of Serapis at Alexandria was a last stronghold of the old religion and philosophy in the East, and as such the Bishop of Alexandria, Theophilus, justly termed by Gibbon "a bold, bad man," determined upon its destruction. He gathered the monks of Egypt into the city, whereupon conflicts ensued between the pagan Greeks and these wild, half-clad fanatics from the desert. The Greeks were compelled to retire to the temple and fortify themselves within its walls. Upon this, Theophilus obtained the authority of the Emperor to bring matters to a conclusion. The fortress was taken and its

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defenders scattered. By the efforts of Theophilus and his monks "not only was the worship suppressed, but the temple itself was demolished," and Sozomen adds that a church dedicated to the Emperor Arcadius rose upon the spot. The attempt of Theophilus to root out not only the worship of this deity, but also the ancient customs and learning, was in large measure successful. Such a scattering of schoolmen had not been seen since the days of Ptolemy Physkon.

Is it probable, is it possible, that any of the equipment of a temple which, in accordance with the prophecy of the Sibyl, had "become a huge ruin in thrice-wretched Egypt," could have escaped the destroying hands of this mob, which considered itself the special instrument of God to root out these relics of heathen superstition? And would not books, always looked upon as pernicious by the illiterate, have been among the first things to meet destruction?

Prof. Bury is, I think, in error in supposing that Gibbon rested his case on the testimony of Orosius. Gibbon narrates at some length the facts of the destruction, including the erection of a church upon the ruins of the temple. As a last item he states that the "valuable library of Alexandria was destroyed," an event of interest to all booklovers. Now it seems to me that, as it stands, there is a peculiar confusion of thought in this passage, which is accountable for on the supposition that Gibbon found the reference in Orosius after the original setting down of the statement just quoted. Without reconsidering the nature of the evidence which had led him to conclude that the library had been destroyed totally—that it had been situated in a building which had been razed to the ground—or modifying his conclusion that it was "destroyed," he inserts the conflicting alternative that the bookcases were "pillaged," and adds further a clause based directly on the passage from Orosius (which he quotes in a footnote).

His conclusion on the annihilation of the library along with the temple was based on his knowledge of the many accounts of the overthrow of Serapis, but, when found, the Orosius passage was of too great interest to be passed over without mention, and in referring to it Gibbon did not distinguish sufficiently between his two sources of information. All this on the supposition that Gibbon was human. Not only, then, is it highly probable that the Serapeum library did not remain to the Saracen conquest, but, if the evidence of Orosius means anything, it is also probable that at this time the Christian rabble made bonfires of all the books they could lay hands on in Alexandria.

FREDERICK J. TEGGART.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., June 10, 1898.

ORIGIN OF 'POOLE'S INDEX.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the January number of the *American Bookman* it is stated that 'Poole's Index' originated with Mr. John Edmands, librarian of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia. The *Bookman* says that it was while a student at Yale that Mr. Edmands prepared a system of references to subjects in magazines and reviews which was to be the germ of the work usually called 'Poole's Index.'

If the name of William Frederick Poole is substituted for that of John Edmands, the statement will then be the exact truth. In his preface to the third edition of 'Poole's Index,' published in 1882, Dr. Poole wrote as follows:

"Thirty-five years ago, when a student at Yale College and connected with the library of one of the literary societies, I indexed such reviews and magazines as were accessible, and arranged the references under topics for the purpose of helping the students in the preparation of their written exercises and society discussions. I had noticed that the sets of standard periodicals with which the library was well supplied were not used, although they were rich in the treatment of subjects about which inquiries were made in vain every day. My work, though crude and feeble on its bibliographical side, answered its purpose, and brought to me the whole body of students for a kind of help they could not get from the library catalogues, nor from any other source. My manuscript was in great demand, and, as it was rapidly wearing out, and printing seemed to be the only expedient for saving the work, it was put to press, and appeared with the title 'Index to Subjects treated in the Reviews and Other Periodicals,' New York, 1848, 8vo, 154 pp. The edition of 500 copies was chiefly taken by other colleges and soon disappeared. The little book is now a curiosity in more senses than one. For twenty years I had not seen a copy when, in 1877, I saw it in the reading-room of the British Museum, with its leaves discolored and nearly worn through by constant handling."

Yours respectfully,

Z. SWIFT HOLBROOK.

477 DEARBORN AVENUE,
CHICAGO, June 28, 1898.

COLLEGE DEBATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Ringwalt's letter in the *Nation* of April 28, and Mr. Carver's reply in the issue of May 12, suggest to me a possible way out of the difficulty of decision in the matter of college debates. Mr. Ringwalt argues rightly that the decision should be made not on the merits of the question, but on the merits of the debating; Mr. Carver replies that the Ohio Intercollegiate Debating League has adopted a plan to secure this result, viz., the furnishing of each judge with "a typewritten copy of the following form for his ballot: In my opinion, without reference to my views upon the merits of the question, the most effective debating has been done by the

{ affirmative
{ negative."

Mr. Carver says that, with this method, however, comes the danger that "brilliancy of speech rather than soundness of argument shall win." Why could not this difficulty be disposed of by the selection of men not *"presumably* suitable as judges" (the words are Mr. Ringwalt's, the italics mine), but men *without doubt* suitable as judges—in other words, legal judges of recognized ability; men whose minds are judicial, and whose habitual business it is to decide on the merits of the case. It is true that in all human affairs the personal equation counts, whether we will or no, but it would seem that such men might be better able than most "miscellaneous" judges to balance evenly the elements of brilliancy in speech and soundness in argument.

CAROLYN SHIPMAN.

WINCHESTER, MASS., July 1, 1898.

Notes.

Remarkable is the simultaneous transformation of a number of Boston publishing houses; Roberts Bros. being absorbed by Little, Brown & Co. and Lee & Shepard taken over by the estate of E. Fleming, a bookbinder, while Estes & Lauriat divide into Dana Estes & Co. and Charles E. Lauriat Co.

Not less noteworthy is the trend of weekly newspapers towards the monthly periodical form; the *Independent* now following the *Outlook's* pioneer example, and the *Critic* converting itself into a monthly magazine. One who seeks for remote causes may connect this movement with the decline of wood-engraving in consequence of the rise of "process" or mechanical engraving, which has immensely broadened the field of illustration, while this in turn has made the magazine form most suitable for the best effects in cut-printing.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, announce 'Our Feathered Friends,' by Elizabeth and Joseph Grinnell, for childish comprehension.

The Oxford University Press (New York: Henry Frowde) has nearly finished printing the first part of the Oxyrhynchus Papyri, which is being edited by Messrs. B. P. Grenfell and A. S. Hunt for the Egypt Exploration Fund. The volume contains 158 texts, 31 being literary and including the early fragments of St. Matthew's Gospel, Sappho, Aristoxenus, Sophocles, and of other lost and extant classics. The remainder is a selection of official and private documents dating from the first to the seventh century of our era, many of them of exceptional interest. The texts are accompanied by introductions, notes, and in most cases by translations; and there are eight collotype plates illustrating the papyri of chief literary and palæographical importance.

Eight years ago we had occasion to praise the compact 'Notes on Military Hygiene,' prepared by Major (now Lieut.-Col.) A. A. Woodhull, U. S. A. A new edition has just been brought out by John Wiley & Sons, revised in conformity with the intermediate progress in medical science, and with a special eye to campaigning in hot countries. The present war insures it a wide circulation, as it is one of the best possible gifts for officers or men; but we can truthfully repeat our encomium, that "every officer of a hospital, a school, an asylum, and every head of a family, may greatly profit by familiarity with this little book."

Sir Henry Burdett's incomparable annual, 'Hospitals and Charities,' for 1898 (London: The Scientific Press; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), has appeared with its unwearied renewal of statistics and discussion. The editor, in his preface, sums up the British benevolence for the Jubilee year in truly astonishing figures: ten million dollars raised for the Indian Famine Fund without affecting adversely the resources of the older charities, which have never been so well supported; 1,100,000 contributors to the Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund for London, etc. Sir Henry much desires the favor of gifts of American pamphlets bearing upon the objects of his generous and most intelligent devotion.

A second edition has been found necessary of Miss Mary Wright Plummer's 'Hints to Small Libraries' (New York: Truslove & Comba). Within the compass of seventy pages, the fundamental information for the conduct of such institutions is systematically displayed with the aid of figures. The original selection is not discussed: "We will suppose that your books are already bought,

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and that they are still in the boxes"; but there are sections on keeping up the library, on the most useful works of reference, etc.

'London and Londoners, 1898,' by Rosalind Pritchard (London: The Scientific Press; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is a handy first essay towards answering the tourists' needs: "what to see, what to know, what to do, where to shop." It has one useless but brief chapter, "London Ways in Smart Society," and for the rest is contrived with much practicality, and even with a slight literary garnish, as where Wordsworth's sonnet is quoted in connection with Westminster Bridge.

The great statesman's fame as a talker will lead many to turn eagerly to Mr. Lionel A. Tollemache's 'Talks with Mr. Gladstone,' just published by the Longmans. It is an interesting book, though it perhaps excites expectations which it does not satisfy. Mr. Tollemache, well known from his former writings as a man of large learning and good literary taste, sets out professedly to "Boswellize" Gladstone. But Mr. Gladstone was no Johnson, and Mr. Tollemache is far from being a Boswell. He has not the extraordinary realistic power of that realist before the realists, neither is he so willing to appear a fool as that unconscious Scot. He leaves the reader in no doubt that Mr. Tollemache's share in the conversation was well sustained, and that he had many another apt classical quotation to adduce, if he had thought of it in time. Yet he gives us a great deal of information about Mr. Gladstone's manner in conversation, and recalls of the substance of his talk not a little which is of much value. Many of the conversations in this book relate to theology and to Homer, of both of which both Mr. Tollemache and Mr. Gladstone were fonder than the average man. But there are also given many opinions of Gladstone's on public men and writers and politics and political and social tendencies.

An interesting memorial to the late Charles Eliot is the reprint of his last forestry report to the Metropolitan Park Commission in February, 1897 ('Vegetation and Scenery in the Metropolitan Reservations of Boston,' Lamson, Wolffe & Co.). This oblong volume, published at the expense of a member of the Commission, embodies "a treatise on the methods of controlling and changing the vegetation in the interests of the scenery." It takes up systematically six types of vegetation — the summit, the swamp; the coppice, the field and pasture, the bushy pasture, the seedling forest—and illustrates the text at every important point with photographic views, which constitute an easy object-lesson for all who are concerned with landscape gardening on any scale. Some tinted plates, with hinged foregrounds, are ingeniously contrived to exhibit the gain in broad prospect by cutting out obtrusive growths. Finally, the several reservations are mapped with a conventional shading that reveals the proportion of the several types of woody growth. These features would be enough to insure wide acceptance of the work, but the lamented author was an agreeable writer, and his text cannot fail to give pleasure to lovers of nature everywhere.

'Sleep, its Physiology, Pathology, Hygiene, and Psychology,' by Marie de Manacéïne (London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), is the English version, enlarged and revised by the author, of a work already published in Russian and in French. It belongs to the better class of the quite unequal units in the Contemporary Science Series, of which it forms number xxxiv. It presents in four essays, each of which is followed by a bibliography of many items, the results of a highly creditable amount of scholarship and of independent observation and experiment.

Nothing can well be more disconcerting to the onlooker who inclines to believe psychology essentially a study for "advanced standing," than the demand which seems to exist for elementary books on the subject. Prof. E. B. Titchener of Cornell, who not long since put forth an 'Outline of Psychology,' now issues a Primer "in response," he says, "to requests urged from many quarters by correspondents, who approved the teaching of the earlier work, that I should prepare for use in high schools and normal schools a text-book conceived from the same general standpoint." "Nevertheless," he adds, "the two are distinct books. The exposition of the *Primer* is simpler, and its range wider." Certainly, granting the utility of a Primer at all, the exposition is in point of explicitness and of lucidity admirable. The following, for example, as a statement for beginners of what is meant in empirical psychology by the mind is all that could be wished:

"It is a little difficult at first to understand this use of the word 'mind,' but it is important that the use should be understood. To make it clearer we will take an illustration. We might say: 'A chair is a piece of furniture that has a seat, and four legs, and bars, and a back, and sometimes arms and rockers.' That seems true enough. But if we look at the description closely we find a difficulty. Does the chair have these parts? Is there any chair there if you take the legs and seat and back and arms away? It is more nearly true to say that the chair *is* all these things than that it *has* them. When we speak of the 'legs of a chair' we do not mean that the chair is complete without its legs; we ought really to say 'the legs of the rest of the chair' or 'the legs of back and seat and arms.' Now it is precisely the same with mind. We must not say the mind 'has' thoughts and feelings, but that the mind *is* thoughts and feelings. Take away the thoughts and feelings and you take away the mind."

Prof. Ladd's 'Outlines of Descriptive Psychology' (Scribners) addresses itself to somewhat maturer students than does Prof. Titchener's Primer. "This book has been written," Prof. Ladd says in his preface, "with a definite intention constantly in view. In size, selection, and arrangement of material, style, and mechanical structure my effort has been to adapt it to certain beginners, with an average grade of culture and amount of time at disposal. In a word, it is —as its title indicates—a text-book of the science of psychology for colleges and normal schools. I have, therefore, had in mind, from first sentence to last, both the pupil and the teacher in their mutual relations. No pains has [*sic*] been spared to make the presentation of the subject such that it can be intelligently and 'economically' yet thoroughly studied and successfully taught." The book possesses the merits of the works of Prof. Ladd already familiar to the public to which writings on psychology are addressed, and bears, generally speaking, the same relation to Prof. Ladd's 'Psychology Descriptive and Explanatory' that his 'Outlines of Physiological Psychology' bears to his 'Elements of Physiological Psychology.'

'A Ride in Morocco,' by Arthur Campbell (Toronto: William Briggs), and the three other sketches in the little volume, "A Glimpse of Rome," "In the Land of the Mandolin," and "A Beggar at Monte Carlo," show their character in their titles. They are well written and make easy if not very profound reading. The author has evidently a good power of observation and a particularly keen sense of humor, which he indulges freely—too freely, indeed, in the first sketch, where his continual flippancy becomes monotonous. As a rule, however, he describes well, showing both real appreciation and healthy common sense as far removed from the æsthete as from the Philistine.

The unobtrusive beauty of the typography of 'Two Poems of Sea-Fights with Spain,' just issued in a very limited edition from the Marion Press, Jamaica, N. Y., is refreshing in the midst of so much William Morris eccentricity misapplied nowadays in honor of the printer's art. This thin quarto, as already announced, comprises Henry Newbolt's short but stirring ballad "Drake's Drum," and Tennyson's longer and perhaps not more stirring "Ballad of the Fleet," "The *Revenge*." But there is, besides, a prefatory historical note by Miss Mary L. Avery and a folding-plate after Seymour Lucas's painting of Dom Pedro de Valdez's surrender to Sir Francis Drake (then commanding the *Revenge*) on July 21, 1588 (O. S.). In every particular this tasteful memento of the absorbing world-topic of the hour has been admirably conceived and executed.

The *Revue des Poètes* is a new venture which began its publication on the 1st of June. The "Lettre Ouverte" with which it opens is written with all the confidence that inspired Capt. Shandon when he wrote the prospectus of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and discloses aims of equal loftiness and breadth. The show inside the tent, however, seems hardly to justify the picture at the tent-door, and, with every desire to be kind towards a first number, we are constrained to say that the far from thrilling poem of M. François Coppée is the best thing that this number gives us. There is also what seems to be a fairly good portrait of M. Edmond Rostand, the successful author of "Cyrano de Bergerac."

A recent number of *La Semaine Medicale* publishes the results of researches made by Dr. L. Vincinci of Saffari on bacilli in holy water, which he found to be swarming with a great variety of noxious bacteria. The most frequent and most dangerous of these microbes is the bacillus of diphtheria. Many a devout person is wont to touch his lips with his finger after dipping it into holy water, and this expression of excessive piety is a prolific source of diphtheritic disease. The stoup thus proves to be a storehouse of fatal epidemics.

While the Germans have not yet adopted the university-extension idea, they have been taking steps towards popularization of special research in various ways, notably through vacation lectures *(Ferienkurse)*, so called because delivered at university seats at seasons when professional men take their vacations and can spend more or less time listening to the latest results in their own and other departments. Such courses have been delivered in various departments at Bonn, Königsberg, and elsewhere. For the coming season a double series is announced by the Jena professors between the 3d and 23d of August. The one series is intended for both men and women, covering such topics as

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physiology, psychology, philosophy, science of religion, pedagogics in all its branches, and special-languages courses for non-Germans. The second series is intended as a review course for teachers of natural sciences in the higher educational institutions. The subjects covered are astronomy, botany, mineralogy, physiology, physics, and zoology.

The movement to establish a missionary library in Cambridge University, headed by the Master of Trinity, Dr. Butler, and the Bishop of Ripon, Dr. Boyd Carpenter, is significant of the changed conditions of foreign-missionary work. A properly equipped missionary is not now, as formerly, merely a man burning with zeal to preach to the heathen, but one with some knowledge of the character, language, literature, religion, and traditions of the people among whom he is to labor, and the capacity to understand and sympathize with what is good in their customs and religious beliefs. He labors not to plant an exotic Methodist or Congregational church, but to teach the fundamental truths of Christianity on which the people themselves are to build a church suited to their life and habits of thought. The movement is also a testimony to the value of missionary literature, which is now a treasury of facts of ethnology, philology, religion, and the natural sciences, the result of observations of carefully trained men often of great intelligence and learning. The library is to be appropriately placed in the building in which is the Henry Martyn Hall—the centre of the missionary work in the University.

The statistics of the foreign trade of the Philippine Islands, sent by our consul at Manila and published in the Consular Reports for June, show that of the exports for the ten years ending in 1897, 41 per cent. of the hemp and more than 55 per cent. of the sugar went to this country, the estimated value being $90,000,000. At the date of his report, February 28, 1898, the United States imports from the islands amounted to "about a million per month." These figures, it should be said, are somewhat larger than those given by our Treasury Department. Among the other contents are statements of the grain trade of Russia, from which it appears that she supplies practically all of Italy's imported wheat and nearly all of Spain's; and some interesting facts in regard to the mineral production of Canada.

Notwithstanding the insinuations as to German enmity and opposition to America and Anglo-Saxon federation, the motherland of both Greater and Lesser Britain does not yield the *pas* to either of them in allegiance to King Shakspere. The *Shakespeare-Jahrbuch* for 1897 records 930 evenings devoted to Shakspere by 158 German theatres, giving performances of twenty-four different plays, "Othello" leading with 121 representations at 72 theatres, followed by "Romeo and Juliet" with 118 representations at 61 theatres, while "The Tempest" alone had a single performance.

—The *National Geographic Magazine* for June (Washington), as the sub-title "Philippine Number" indicates, is wholly devoted to an account of those islands, their physical characteristics, fauna, flora, resources, inhabitants, and commerce. From the official observations it appears that the hottest months are April and May, with a mean temperature of 83 degrees and 84 degrees respectively, while for July and the two following months it is 81 degrees. The greatest rainfall is in September, with a mean of 15 and a maximum of 61 inches; the mean for the year being 75 inches. The most dangerous time for typhoons in Manila is about the end of October and beginning of November. The beasts of prey are confined to a small cat, and the wild animals are buffalo, deer, hogs, and monkeys. Gold exists over extensive areas on the island of Luzon: "in the alluvial deposits of every stream on the Pacific side some color of gold can be found." Though the natives have obtained considerable gold by washing and have made some crude attempts to grind the gold-bearing rock, the Spaniards have done nothing to utilize this source of wealth. The same is mainly true of the abundant iron ore, of excellent quality, of the rich deposits of copper, sulphur, and the very promising coal-fields. Two of the primitive tribes are described at some length by Dean C. Worcester, who has made several visits to the least-explored islands in search of birds and mammals. The most interesting of these was the Mangyan, a nomadic race living in the forests in the interior of Mindoro. The Spaniards have not succeeded in subduing them, and half-hearted attempts to civilize them have proved abortive. Although described as head-hunters and cannibals, they were found to be perfectly harmless when their confidence was gained. There was not to be observed the slightest indication of worship of any kind, but their morals are astonishingly good. The men are honest, and the women chaste. The fire ordeal is used by them to determine guilt or innocence. The Tagbanuas of Palawan, however, cause both accuser and accused to "dive into the water at the same instant. The one who remains longest beneath the surface is adjudged to have spoken the truth." Their standard for measuring distance is based on the carrying power of the human voice; a given thing being so many "calls" away. There is a map and a number of illustrations, the most noteworthy being of the savages, who appear neither unintelligent nor unattractive.

—It is probably due to the influence of Lord Acton, now professor of modern history at Cambridge, that the attention of historical students in that university has been so largely turned of late towards the investigation of political thought. The competition for the Thirlwall prize has already produced Mr. Figgis's 'Divine Right'; and now it gives us the other side of the political speculation of the period in 'The History of English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century,' by Mr. G. P. Gooch (Cambridge Historical Essays, No. X., New York: Macmillan). This is certainly a useful contribution to our knowledge of the subject. Its author has carefully worked through a great deal of the pamphlet literature; he has brought the various writers into their proper chronological order and relation to contemporary events, and all subsequent investigators will feel grateful to him for his abundant and exact references. But, unfortunately, his book can hardly be treated as anything more than an elaborate bibliography of the subject. The really significant things are not made to stand out; there is no attempt to show that seventeenth-century political thought had its roots in ancient philosophy and mediæval theology as well as in contemporary conditions; the narrative is almost devoid of movement; and the style is wooden, scrappy, and frequently obscure. A book like this reinforces the conviction that, for the best historical work, even of the nature of original research, there must be a union of the new scientific ideal with the old belles-lettristic spirit. After all, the history of political thought should be more than a conglomeration of citations; it is a fragment of human life, which needs to be presented as life. And how lifeless Mr. Gooch's book is, compared, let us say, with Borgeaud's 'Rise of Modern Democracy'!

—The fourth centenary of Savonarola's martyrdom, May 23, 1498, has been fitly commemorated by Prof. Villari, in conjunction with his former pupil, Professor Casanova, through the publication of a portly volume, 'Scelta di Prediche e Scritti, con nuovi Documenti intorno alla sua Vita' (Florence: Sansoni). This consists mainly of a series of selected passages from the sermons and writings of Fra Girolamo, sufficient to enable the student to comprehend the character of his teachings, and the nature of the eloquence which wrought with such tremendous effect upon the Florentines. The specimens given of his poetry are more conclusive as to his earnest piety than as to his lyric gifts, while among his prose writings the "Compendio delle Rivelazioni" affords satisfactory evidence of the sincerity of his own belief in his inspiration, and the letters to the members of his family reveal the warmth of his filial affection during his stormy career as prophet and leader of the Florentine democracy. While scattered writings of Savonarola can readily be picked up in various editions of the sixteenth century, many of them are scarce, and Professor Villari has performed a welcome service in thus selecting from the mass and presenting in a reasonable compass all that is necessary to give an adequate conception of the different phases of the prophet's mental activities. The value of the volume is, moreover, largely enhanced by the inclusion of two inedited contemporary documents throwing light on Savonarola's career— the "Epistola" of his disciple the Frate Placido Cinozzi, and extracts from the "Cronaca" of Simone Filipepi, brother of Sandro Botticelli, recently discovered in the Vatican library. The latter especially gives a living picture of the times which students of the Italian renaissance cannot fail to appreciate.

—The Japanese illustrated magazines are full of the recent celebrations in Tokio of the thirtieth year of the transference of the national capital from Kioto to the site of Yedo. The chief literary expression of the joyful anniversary is a neat volume of 330 pages, copiously illustrated with half-tone reproductions of scenes and of personages prominent in 1868 and in 1898. It is characteristic of commercial Japan, for its cost is guaranteed by the insertion of fifty or more pages of advertisements of things native and imported. In remote ages Yedo (gate of the bay) was a village, but its history as a city began with Iyeyasu, the unifier of Japan, in 1604. Iyemitsu, his grandson, continued the policy of centralization of feudalism. The summit of municipal grandeur was reached about 1850. Except visits from Koreans and Dutchmen, Townsend Harris was the first foreigner in our century to live in Yedo, in 1858. The Premier Ii was promptly assassinated in 1860 for signing the treaty with the United States. Then followed the vain attempt of Echizen to reform morals

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and politics by pulling out the king-bolt of the feudal machine—relieving the daimios of their enforced residence of six months yearly in Yedo. This move was the remaking of Kioto as the real political centre of the Empire. After the decisive battle of Fushimi and the march of the imperialists under Saigo on Yedo, the city was saved from the torch by the diplomacy of Katsu, who still lives. The memorial of Okubo wrought the change of policy which abolished the mystery-play of the invisible Son of Heaven, got the Mikado down on the earth, and transported him to Yedo, which was forthwith named Tokio, or Eastern Capital. "Saikio," or Western Capital, once so common, is now rarely heard, and Kioto keeps its ancient name, honored during eleven hundred years. The Anniversary Book gives the poems, speeches, programmes of ceremonies, descriptions of the costume-processions, and accounts of the tableaux, arches, allegorical representations, etc. There seems little ground for believing that the Japanese show any failure to appreciate their own past, or lack capacity to adapt themselves in full æsthetic consciousness to their new conditions of life. Besides the floral decorations in the forms of arches and the costumes and ceremonies imported in recent decades, there was a notable revival of ancient games and spectacles illustrative of war and peace. Polo, which in Japan dates from the twelfth century and peacefully mimics the cavalry charges of the Heike and Genji (whites and reds) in their civil wars, and the heads gathered from the slain after battle, was played with especial zest. The geisha (artists or singing girls) lent the charm of beauty and disciplined grace. Especially striking were artistic reproductions in color of the luxuriant folk-lore—the tongue-cut sparrow, Peachling and his conquest of the Demon's Island, etc. Indeed, pretty much the whole population of Japanese fairy world, with all its sprites, goblins, and funny creatures of earth, air, and sea, appeared in the "floats" or on human legs. When critically read, the national folk-lore is a mirror of Japanese history, while the popular enjoyment of the ancient stories is unmeasured.

—In the eyes of students, the unification of Japan in the sixteenth century, which made Yedo possible, though completed by Iyeyasu, was begun by Hideyoshi. A consciousness of national unity, unknown in its fulness before the war of 1894-95, has prompted the Japanese to restore the tomb and cemetery in Kioto in which rest the ashes of the Taiko who from a stable-boy became the Mikado's highest officer. The elaborate official, religious, and popular ceremonies in Kioto during May in honor of Hideyoshi show little sign of that denationalization which some natives fear. To this, also, the magazines are devoted. Among the literary features of the celebration is the historical paper which recalls the fact that during the early sixteenth century, when the Japanese sea-rovers harried the coasts from Siberia to Siam, and Shantung was overrun by them, the first fort was built in the early days of the Ming dynasty by the Chinese at Wei-hai-Wei to repel them. As the Japanese marched out of this British-Chinese stronghold, several hundred marines and sailors from the thirty or more British men-of-war now at Chifu marched in. One of the first things started was a playground for cricket.

SIR HENRY RAWLINSON.

A Memoir of Major-General Sir Henry Creswicke Rawlinson, Bart., K.C.B., etc. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Canon of Canterbury, late Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford. With an Introduction by Field-Marshal Lord Roberts of Kandahar, V.C. With illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co.

Sir Henry Rawlinson's title to fame rests primarily on his decipherment of the cuneiform characters, which opened to the study of scholars vast fields of new knowledge. The history, literature, science, and religion of Persia, Assyria, and Babylonia were locked up in the cuneiform inscriptions, the key to which he found at Behistun in Persia. His achievement was both more difficult in itself than Champollion's famous decipherment of the Egyptian hieroglyphs, and also more important in its results. The Rosetta stone contained the same inscription in Greek, in Egyptian demotic, and Egyptian hieroglyphic characters. The character and language of the inscription in one form were, therefore, already well established, and formed a base from which to proceed to the decipherment of the other two forms. The stone itself, moreover, was readily accessible, and it was possible to copy and study it without risk or difficulty. Even so the task of deciphering it was sufficiently difficult. But to copy the Behistun triple inscription was in the first place a difficult and dangerous task, and, when it was copied, no one of the three inscriptions afforded in itself a clue for the decipherment of the others, since each was written in an unknown character and a till then unknown or imperfectly known tongue.

On the side of a mountain, three hundred feet above the plain, Darius Hystaspis caused the face of the rock to be scarped, and then

"carefully smoothed, preparatory to the engraving of the inscriptions on it; and when any portion proved to be unsound, it had been cut away, and fragments of a better quality, embedded in molten lead, had been inserted, with a neatness and precision that rendered a very careful scrubbing necessary in order to detect the artifice. Again, holes and fissures which perforated the rock had been filled up with good material, and a polish had been given to the whole structure which could only have been accomplished by mechanical means."

On the surface thus prepared he caused to be engraved in cuneiform characters the same inscription in Persian, Babylonian, and "Scythian." Then a coating of silicious varnish, much harder than the rock, was laid on to make the characters distinct, and to preserve them from the ravages of the weather, the approaches to the rock were removed, and this great inscription left suspended, as it were, in mid-air, three hundred feet above the ground, on the face of a precipice. Others had made inaccurate transcripts by the use of telescopes; Rawlinson, with great labor and much risk, scaled the rock, secured "squeezes," and made an accurate copy, after several visits covering in all a period of ten years, 1835-44. In the decipherment of the inscriptions he began with the Persian cuneiform. Some writers on Assyriology ascribe to Grotefend the honor of deciphering the Persian cuneiform. Grotefend had, in fact, published some twenty years earlier an alphabet of the Persian cuneiform, consisting of thirty letters, but of these thirty letters only eight were correct, while the translations of a few brief inscriptions attempted by him were quite erroneous. Sir Henry found his work of no use whatever, and the alphabet by means of which he finally, in 1846, deciphered, and then, by his knowledge of modern Persian, aided by his study of Burnouf's work on the Zend, translated, the whole of the great Behistun inscription, was altogether his own discovery.

The decipherment of the second, or Babylonian, inscription was a still more difficult task. The script proved to be vastly more complicated than in the Persian inscription, not alphabetic, but partly ideographic and partly syllabic. There were almost 250 different characters, some of which, as it turned out, had a number of different values, both ideographic and syllabic. The script was not only extraordinarily complicated, but unike anything known theretofore, so that Sir Henry was often misled rather than helped by the experience acquired in deciphering the Persian cuneiform, and brought into doubt of his own conclusions. Indeed, so peculiar is the Babylonian cuneiform writing, that more than twenty years after Rawlinson had published his solution of the puzzle, and after scholars in England, France, and Germany, following in his footsteps, had published transliterations and translations of a multitude of other inscriptions, a learned work was published by a German scholar to prove that such a method of writing was preposterous and impossible, and the decipherment erroneous. How difficult, then, must have been the work of this pioneer discoverer! His method was first to ascertain the value of as many signs as possible by means of the proper names, which he found by comparing the Persian with the Babylonian text, assuming that the contents of both were identical. These signs he tested further upon other Assyrian and Babylonian inscriptions, many of which were passing through his hands at this time, because of his relation to the excavations of Layard at Nineveh. As the number of the signs thus deciphered grew, he was able to translate a word here and there, and finally, from a study of these words, reached the conclusion that the language with which he had to deal was Semitic, closely akin to Hebrew and Arabic. It was necessary for him, then, to acquire those languages before he could hope to decipher the inscription and correctly interpret the meanings and values of all the signs used.

It was not until the year 1851, sixteen years after he began to work on the decipherment of the Behistun inscription, that he published his 'Babylonian Memoir,' which

"comprised, first, a copy of the great Babylonian inscription of Behistun in the original (Babylonian) character, with an interlined transliteration of the same, and a literal translation of it into Latin, printed on seventeen plates, and extending to a hundred and twelve long lines of cuneiform writing; secondly, nine smaller detached inscriptions from the same place, together with three short epigraphs from Naksh-i-Rustam, similarly transliterated and translated; thirdly, a list of 246 Babylonian and Assyrian characters, with their phonetic powers, ideographic value, if any, and phonetic powers arising from ideographic values; fourthly, an analysis of the Babylonian text of the great inscription, with an English translation, down to the end of the first column (38 lines of the cuneiform text); and, fifthly, the commencement of a 'Memoir on the Babylonian and Assyrian Inscriptions,' unfortunately never completed."

On this memoir, published in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, rests the whole superstructure of Assyriology. No achieve-

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ment of any scholar or explorer in the field of Assyriological research can be compared in importance, even distantly, with this great achievement of Rawlinson. Add to this that he was himself a most successful explorer and excavator in Persia, Babylonia, and Assyria, and that he planned and superintended the publication of the five great folio volumes of Assyrian and Babylonian texts issued by the British Museum, which are still the classics of the student of Assyriology, and it will be understood how vast is the debt which Oriental scholarship owes to Sir Henry Creswicke Rawlinson. Unfortunately for his popular fame, he did not, like Layard, record his achievements in fascinating volumes of travel and exploration, but only in memoirs in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society or of the Royal Geographical Society (for he was a geographer as well as an Assyriologist, and made many valuable contributions to our knowledge of the geography of Persia and central Asia, and especially the comparative geography of those regions). Even the present volume by his brother, Canon Rawlinson, while it records his great achievements as explorer and decipherer, fails to tell the story with the picturesqueness and personality needful to impress the public imagination. The fame of men depends largely upon their historians.

It is curious to realize that the man who achieved such great results in the world of scholarship was by nature and preference a man of action, a sportsman, and a soldier, and not a scholar. As a young officer he was a leader in social dissipation, "steward of the balls, manager of the theatre, head of the billiard and racquet-rooms, general getter-up of parties, arranger of pigeon matches, and a sort of honorary master of ceremonies at all dinner parties and social gatherings," the hero of a mad ride recorded in the *Sporting Magazine*, holding his own among the officers of the First Grenadiers, who "rode, shot, raced, betted, gambled almost without intermission." To the end of his life he retained his interest in sport, and one of the ornaments of his library, along with Assyrian marbles and rare books of the East, was a picture of his father's horse "Coronation," which won the Derby in 1841. He was a man of enterprise and daring, joined with an inquiring mind, possessing precisely those characteristics which under favorable circumstances produce the explorer, the discoverer, and the inventor. He loved to conquer difficulties and do what no one else could do. Seeing the cuneiform inscriptions during his residence in Persia, and finding that no one had yet solved the mystery, he undertook the difficult task. It required marvellous patience, indomitable tenacity, and infinite study in many fields. But the solution achieved, the discovery accomplished, he dropped that work to take up other matters. He left his Babylonian Memoir incomplete;

"he pursues the analysis of the text only to the end of the first column, and breaks off in the account begun of the alphabet at the second letter. The Persian Memoir terminates abruptly, not only in the middle of a chapter, but in the middle of a word. It cannot be denied that in his character there was an element of impatience which made prolonged labor at a set task distasteful to him. He liked the first plunge into a subject, and the broad views and bold outlines which are suitable at the inception of a new work; he disliked the elaboration of details."

For twenty-eight years, 1827-1855, he served the East India Company in India, Beluchistan, Afghanistan, Persia, and at Baghdad; the remaining forty years of his life was spent in England, with the exception of a brief period during which he was English Ambassador to Persia. During these forty years, however, he retained his connection with and active interest in the government of India. His speeches in Parliament were on Indian affairs, and particularly on the relations of England and Russia in Central Asia. In this matter he took the position of a Russophobe and alarmist, in spite of the fact that he was a Liberal. He wrote in a similar vein in the *Quarterly Review*, and finally in 1874 published a book, entitled 'England and Russia in the East,' which enraged the Liberals, but met with such favor from the Conservatives that Lord Salisbury not only expressed "a warm approval of the work," but "to some extent corrected the proofs of the second edition." From 1868 to the close of his life, in 1895, he was a member of the India Council, and as such, from his extensive knowledge, not only of India, but also of Afghanistan, Kurdistan, and Persia, a trusted councillor of the Indian Government. It was, according to Canon Rawlinson, his advice, largely, if not chiefly, which induced the Conservative Government and Lord Lytton, who seems to have taken very close counsel throughout with Sir Henry, to undertake the second Afghan war in 1878.

Canon Rawlinson has done his biographical work conscientiously and on the whole well, although, as already stated, we miss in the narrative that something of vividness and personality which might have made the story of Sir Henry's explorations and discoveries more fascinating than a romance. As a fine description of his sturdy honesty, we will quote in closing a few words from a chapter on "Personal Characteristics and Occupations Late in Life," contributed by the present Sir Henry Rawlinson:

"In all his actions, official and private, the main guiding factor which actuated him was justice. Nothing irritated or saddened him more than the discovery of underhand dealings on the part of his subordinates: he judged one and all by his own high standard of moral and actual right. The feelings of an English gentleman were as strongly marked in the boy of seventeen that sailed for India in 1827 as they were in the Resident at Baghdad, or in the Member of the Indian Council. It was strongly against his idea of honor that a public servant of her Majesty should in any way be mixed up in a commercial enterprise which could in any possible way be influenced by his official position. It was for this reason that he constantly and steadfastly refused to become a director of any of the companies which were formed for the development of Egypt, Persia, or India. Though by no means a rich man, he would not accept any accession to his income which could be said to be derived from his having 'lent his name' to a syndicate; and it was certainly not for want of asking that his name was conspicuous by its absence at the head of company prospectuses. He was continually inundated with applications of this kind. In recent years these views seem to be looked upon as 'antiquated and old-fashioned,' but it will be generally admitted that the standard of our national character has not been enhanced by the way many names of note have been allowed to appear on prospectuses for the purpose of attracting investors. We have been drifting lately nearer, perhaps too near, to the system of financial morality prevalent on the other side of the Atlantic."

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

The Smithsonian Institution—1846-1896: The History of Its First Half-Century. Edited by G. Brown Goode. City of Washington. 1897. Imp. 8vo, pp. xii., 856, many portraits and other illustrations.

A ponderous and stately volume, comporting well with the weightiness and dignity of formal science, is this commemoration of the first semi-centennial of the Smithsonian, giving an account of the history, achievements, and present condition of the Institution, whose origin is unique, whose position in this country is peculiar, and whose place is an honored one among the learned bodies of the world. It is prefaced by President McKinley, *ex officio*, and introduced in a few words by Secretary Langley, showing that the work was planned and partly executed by the late Prof. Goode, at whose lamented death the details of publication passed into the less competent hands of one whose editorial proficiency and knowledge of the subject appear to be equally slight.

Somewhat more than one-half of the volume is historical and to a large extent biographical. Its personal interest naturally attaches most closely to James Smithson himself, the founder, of whom the account rendered by Secretary Langley leaves nothing to be desired. It is an open secret that his name was originally James Lewis Macie, and that he was born in 1765 as the illegitimate son of Elizabeth Hungerford Keate Macie and Hugh Smithson, later Hugh Percy and first Duke of Northumberland, the mother being niece of Charles, Duke of Somerset. As the biographer observes, p. 2:

"It is especially to these facts that the foundation which bears his name is due, for Smithson seems always to have regarded the circumstances of his birth as doing him a peculiar injustice, and it was apparently his sense that he had been deprived of honors properly his which made him look for other sources of fame than those which birth had denied him, and constituted the motive of the most important action of his life, the creation of the Smithsonian Institution."

Smithson's own achievements in science are not conspicuous, and his life seems to have been a struggle with a stigma, with a passion for gambling, and with ill-health. He died at Genoa June 27, 1829, having in his will of October 23, 1826, accomplished the main purpose of his life by bequeathing his large property "to the United States of America, to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an Establishment for the increase & diffusion of knowledge among men." It was not until 1846, after a long series of preliminary steps, that the deed was fully executed. The organic act of Congress passed the Senate and was approved by President Polk on August 10, the first meeting of the Board of Regents was held September 7, Joseph Henry was elected Secretary December 3, and before the close of the year a plan of organization had been adopted, and a site for the building selected. The corner-stone was laid May 1, 1847. The building was partly destroyed by fire January 24, 1865; it was restored, and in 1878, the east wing, which had long been Prof. Henry's residence, was remodelled and enlarged for office purposes. In the course of time various additional bequests, large and small, have greatly augmented the financial resources of the Institution.

Details of the founding of the Institution, of the establishment of the Board of Regents, and of the building and grounds, are from Prof. Goode's pen, as are the biographies of the three secretaries, practically the successive directors. Henry served until his death, May 13, 1878, and the bronze statue

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now standing in the grounds was erected April 19, 1883. He was immediately succeeded by Spencer Fullerton Baird, who in like manner served until his death on August 19, 1887; his statue remains to be erected. According to settled tradition that the office should alternate between a physicist and a biologist, he was succeeded by Samuel Pierpont Langley, the present incumbent. We have mentioned numerous benefactions additional to the original bequest. The benefactors are appropriately treated in a special article by Prof. Langley. Another special article treats of the Smithsonian library, which in the beginning was such a bone of contention between Secretary Henry and Prof. C. C. Jewett, and which seems to have long been an elephant whose whiteness was disproportionate to its modest bulk. The relations of this to the Library of Congress are discussed in a special paper by Mr. A. R. Spofford, till lately the librarian of the latter.

Though it is the traditional policy of the Institution to publish nothing, if indeed to do anything, that any other corporation or individual can be found to undertake, its ample resources have naturally led to its branching out in various directions beyond its original schedule of activities. The first considerable and still the most prominent of these collateral establishments is the United States National Museum, in the ungainly gaunt house adjoining the Smithsonian. This took shape from the Philadelphia Centennial of 1776, starting ostensibly from the requirements urged upon Congress by Prof. Baird for permanent preservation of the United States Fisheries' exhibit. Prof. Baird was altogether the most successful extractor of money from Congress ever connected with the Institution; unlike Henry, he never stood on needless dignity, was never too busy to explain to the average Congressman what he wanted, and his logic was always irresistible. A few thousand dollars for the care and exhibition of this small collection, against which, when boxed up in the narrow corridors, Prof. Baird used to let Congressmen bark their shins until they were in an appropriate frame of mind, was the entering wedge for the millions since expended upon the museum. Prof. Goode, who had a genius for musæology, became in due course its director, and under his fostering care it grew to become one of the leading establishments of the kind in the world. The volume very appropriately includes the biography of this distinguished naturalist, from the pen of President D. S. Jordan, of the Leland Stanford Junior University, as well as a special chapter, by Mr. F. W. True, on the Museum itself.

Several other distinct dependencies of the Smithsonian require notice. The most important of these is doubtless the United States Bureau of Ethnology, an account of which is contributed by Mr. W. J. McGee. This began in 1867 with Major J. W. Powell's personal skill, daring, and energy in exploring the West, and has assumed great proportions under his consummately able direction, always fostered and encouraged by successive secretaries of the Institution. The most recent development is the astrophysical laboratory, for the conduct of Prof. Langley's special researches; and, by the way, the chapter devoted to this subject will be found a technical scientific paper, from the hands of a specialist, on astrophysics, illustrated with numerous plates. Another ramification of the Smithsonian is the National Zoölogical Park, the account of which, by Dr. Frank Baker, shows that it is not yet up to the mark of many other such establishments we could name. If Baird were alive to-day, he would not cease to cool his heels in the halls of political greatness till he had all the money and all the animals he wanted; but a Baird will probably never be duplicated. The International Exchange System, to which a chapter is devoted, is an integral part of Smithsonian operations, and has been so for many years. It is so quiet and unobtrusive, in the nature of the case, that little is known of it beyond the professional scientists and scientific institutions that profit by its enormous facilitation of the interchange of books and papers all over the world, practically without expense either to sender or receiver. Another very important field of Smithsonian effectuality is its work in connection with exploration, for the collection of specimens of natural history and other museum objects. This began, or began to be noticeably efficient, in the years of the Pacific Railroad explorations, and has never ceased to be pushed. Few Government expeditions have been unprovided with collectors whose grists came to the Smithsonian mill, and many are the other scientific explorations set afield or promoted in some way by this Institution. A review of all this line of work is given by Mr. True. The number of Smithsonian publications has become enormous; they are in small part mere officialities, being mostly periodical or occasional papers in all branches of science, which have carried the name of Smithson and his Institution to the uttermost corners of the earth.

In the foregoing we merely touch upon the matters to which little more than one-half of the portly volume is devoted. The rest is entitled "Appreciation of the Work of the Smithsonian Institution," in the several departments of physics, mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, geology and mineralogy, meteorology, palæontology, botany, zoölogy, anthropology, geography, bibliography, etc., each such topic being handled by some one more or less capable writer. This is perhaps not unbecoming a jubilee, though the jubilation seems rather like a linked sweetness long drawn out than anything else we can think of on the spur of the moment; it involves some repetition of items already presented in preceding portions of the book, some statements that would be more important if truer, and numerous notable omissions. It is simply botched, like the index, the latter being one of the very worst we have ever seen in a book of like importance. The least pretentious, but by no means the least useful, paper of the whole series is that prepared by the veteran chief clerk, Mr. William J. Rhees, sole survivor of the most ancient régime, except Solomon G. Brown, who came in February, 1852, Mr. Rhees's date being June, 1853. It is a chronological list of the principal events in the Institution, relegated to the small type of an appendix, with needless discrimination against its writer. It is such a happy afterthought that it ought not to have been cut down about one-third in the manuscript, as we suppose it to have been, from our own knowledge of Smithsonian chronology and Mr. Rhees's competency. Those who desire to inform themselves on the whole subject will do well to take Mr. Rhees's paper first, and the others at leisure, somewhat in the order in which we have presented them in this review.

That the will of Smithson has been carried out not only in perfect good faith, but also on the whole with wise policy, is evident. To speak only of the two who have passed away, probably no two better men could have been made autocrats of the Institution than both Henry and Baird, the one of the period of firm establishment, the other of that of vast expansion. The future would seem to be assured if the opposite extreme of Baird's benign paternalism be avoided. The time when the old habitués of the place could speak of it as "Baird's hatching-house of young naturalists" is past. "New occasions teach new duties," and among these is the administration of highly complex affairs, requiring some restrictions and the use of some red tape; but the strangury of that useful article has been undeniable since Dickens made it notorious, and bureaucracy best befits the least scientific departments of our government.

Memoirs of a Highland Lady. The Autobiography of Elizabeth Grant of Rothiemurchus, afterwards Mrs. Smith of Baltiboys, 1797-1830. Edited by Lady Strachey. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

The original words "that would have made Quintilian stare and gasp" were four Scotch surnames, and not very stiff ones either—Gordon, Colkitto, Macdonnel, and Galasp. Sir Walter, undeterred by Miltonic sarcasm, weaves into a sentence ('Marmion,' Canto IV.) four names that would have made Quintilian quite faint away, to wit, Rothiemurchus, Tomantoul, Achnaslaid, and Dromouchty. Mrs. Smith, whose memoirs we have under review, was a Miss Grant of Rothiemurchus, and thus the place appears in literature for the second time at least. It was, at the end of the last century, "a beautiful plain, with lakes and rivers and forest and mountain glens; black cattle were its staple products; its real wealth, its timber, was unthought of, so that, as its sons multiplied, the laird of the period felt some difficulty in maintaining them."

Lady Strachey's preface rehearses the main facts of Mrs. Smith's life and gives a clue to the narrative which it introduces. Elizabeth Grant, though at times she underwent considerable discomfort, was not a tragedy queen, nor, though she eventually did a great deal for the tenants on her husband's estate in Ireland, was she a philanthropist. She was the alert and intelligent daughter of a Scottish laird who became a member of Parliament and, afterwards a judge in Bombay. She moved in upper-middle-class circles, even having acquaintances in the lower hem of the aristocracy. At the age of twenty-six she had the felicity of standing near the Duke of Wellington for five minutes together, but there is nothing to show that she was introduced to him. Her reminiscences derive their value from a strain of liveliness and quick observation rather than from being a record of political or fashionable society. Lowell, in one of his latest essays, "The Study of Modern Languages," witnesses from his rich experience that "to give pleasure merely is one, and not the lowest, function of whatever deserves to be called literature." Judged with reference to wholesome amusement, Mrs. Smith's story of her early days reaches a high level. She wrote for her children and a niece "with no thought but to interest them in those scenes

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. . . which she recalled so vividly." Her memoirs "were privately printed by subscription, in order to make them more accessible to those whose interest in the actors and the deeds of that past time is a personal one; and in this form they have proved so attractive that the writer's daughter, Mrs. King, has consented to publish them."

Mrs. Smith had what is rare, a bona-fide intention of writing for her own family, and for them alone. Proof positive of this purpose is furnished by internal evidence, namely, by the 250 closely printed pages which carry the reader no further on his chronological way than to the heroine's seventeenth year. After an ascetic upbringing, her début at the Inverness Meeting of 1814 was a revelation both as to costume and as to pleasure. Here, with a fond glance at the gowns she wore, the first chapter of her annals ends. "There were white muslin with blue trimmings, shoes to match, and roses; white gauze, pink shoes, and trimmings, and hyacinths; pearl-gray gauze and pink, and a Bacchus wreath of grapes and vine leaves, for we had three balls, dinners before the first two, and a supper after the last." A second chapter carries her into Edinburgh and London society, and a third to India, where she met her husband. We submit as an example of her style a short passage relating to the author of 'Waverley,' which had barely issued from the printer's hands when Miss Grant came out in Edinburgh drawing-rooms:

"I was never in company with Walter Scott; he went out very little, and when he did go he was not agreeable, generally sitting very silent, looking dull and listless, unless an occasional flash lighted up his countenance. In his own home he was another character, especially if he liked his guests. It was odd, but Sir Walter never had the reputation in Edinburgh he had elsewhere—was not the lion, I mean. His wonderful works were looked for, read with avidity, praised on all hands, yet the author made far less noise at home than he did abroad. The fat, vulgar Mrs. Jobson, whose low husband had made his large fortune at Dundee by pickling herrings, on being congratulated at the approaching marriage of her daughter to Sir Walter's son, said the young people were attached, otherwise her Jane might have looked higher; 'it was only a baronetcy, and quite a late creation.'"

We are sorry that Mrs. Smith stopped short at 1830. She was at Baltiboys through the potato-rot, and in the thick of relief work. We can perhaps indicate the nature of her literary manner by surmising that, had she described her Irish adventures, we might have another book to place beside Steuart Trench's 'Realities of Irish Life.' Like all autobiographers, she falls into some errors of statement, but we pass by those which we have noticed because they are neither malicious nor of material consequence.

French Literature of To-day. By Yetta Blaze de Bury. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

While admitting the validity of the usual prefatory plea that the essays composing this volume, written as they were at long intervals and for different reviews, necessarily lack general coherence and uniformity, we cannot overlook the fact that each article considered by itself shows no very firm grasp of a dominant purpose or idea. These are not so much studies as magazine *causeries*, devoted to a number of contemporary celebrities, living or dead. When we discover that their range is wide enough to include both Charcot and Verlaine, we are not surprised that the judgments expressed are remarkable neither for novelty nor for conclusiveness. In proof of this the reader need but turn to the paper on Maupassant, which contains little more than hasty epitomes of some of his best-known novels and tales. Occasionally a happy phrase hits off a characteristic with some neatness; as, for example, when it is said that "Maupassant's heroes generally submit too easily to the call of their nervous system" (p. 34); or that Bourget's personages represent "a rather neurasthenic humanity in search of duality of feeling" (p. 130). Such sallies, however, fail to divert our attention from manifest weaknesses. Charcot's investigations of organic nervous diseases are more likely to secure his lasting scientific fame than his experiments in hypnotism, here dwelt on at unnecessary length. And, truly, it must require more daring than we were prepared for to maintain (p. 156) that M. Brunetière is safe against charges of literary injustice or partiality, while proclaiming him (p. 158) the "autocrat of triumphant convictions."

But an author who expresses contempt for "comparisons between talents so foreign, based on the fact that there was a single point of resemblance between the men" (p. 265), might well make some effort to avoid furnishing glaring examples of the practice inveighed against. On what conceivable ground can it be said (p. 34) that Mme. de Mortsauf in 'Le Lys dans la Vallée' is a portrait made out of the mere outline of the Countess of Almaviva in 'Le Mariage de Figaro'? Neither the two women nor their respective situations possess any fundamental resemblance. Nor do we understand why, if Brunetière is the Napoleon of contemporary criticism, and Lemaître its Mazarin, Anatole France has any serious title to be called its Voltaire (p. 238).

Much might be said in extenuation of the impression which these essays produce of having been thought in French, while written in English; still, so far as we know, French habits of thought do not commonly encourage writers to speak of a lecturer as "conducting his audience along the most escarped meanderings of his theatrical conferences" (p. 173); nor, again, of "gems hard enough to defy decay" (p. 279).

A Middy's Recollections. 1853-1860. By Rear-Admiral Montagu, R. N. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan.

The author of this small volume is a son of the late Earl of Sandwich, and entered the British navy as a cadet before reaching the age of thirteen. The period covered by his narrative is confined to his experience as a cadet and midshipman, but during this time he saw active service in three wars—in fact, all of the war service in his naval career. These wars were those of the Crimea, the British war with China in 1857, and in India during the Mutiny as a member of the naval brigade landed from H. M. S. *Pearl*. The Indian service extended over a term of eighteen months on shore, during which the brigade took part in twenty-six engagements of more or less importance.

The school of the British navy, even as late as 1853, was a rough one, especially for a youngster delicately bred as the author was. The rations of his mess were the same as those allowed to the ship's company, vastly inferior to those now issued, and the gun-room mess had much of the bad style of former days, without, as the author says, any of the higher qualities of the old naval officer to temper it. Still, it was a school of good seamanship, and continued so until the demands of speed, armor, and increased tonnage caused the removal of the lofty spars and sails. In the Crimean war, for instance, the *Arethusa*, a fifty-gun sailing frigate, in attacking a fort off Odessa, showed good handling when, sailing in, she fired first one broadside, then (in tacking) her bow guns, then her other broadside, and finally (wearing around) discharged her stern guns. Flogging was still in full vogue at the time of the author's life in the gun-room. In his experience it invariably occurred at half-past seven in the morning, all of the officers parading on deck in frock coats with swords while the punishment was inflicted. It is gratifying to know that the navy of the United States led the van in the abolition of this barbarous punishment, and its advocates in Congress included the few officers of the navy who ever attained seats in that body.

Some of the incidents of the book are suggestive of the times and writings of Marryat. One of the captains mentioned, for instance, during the Crimean war, always wore a tall beaver hat, which was then allowable as uniform, with what was termed a lightning-conductor—*i. e.*, a piece of broad gold lace from crown to brim. When the Captain went on shore, off came the lightning-conductor, and he was in plain attire. During an engagement the hat would become white from the smoke of the gunpowder, much to the delight of the midshipmen.

Admiral Montagu's experience in the Indian Mutiny included the sight of blowing Sepoy mutineers from a gun. It is described by him as follows:

"We used to form our force up into three sides of a square; a gun was loaded with half a charge of powder, and the rebel was lashed to the muzzle. This was done for effect, in the hope of overawing the natives; but those executed did not seem to mind it, for their souls were supposed to be saved if they were killed by white men; I saw them walk up to the gun as coolly as possible."

The book, though somewhat slight in character, is of interest and will help pass away pleasantly a few hours.

The State and Charity. By Thomas Mackay. Macmillan Co. 1893.

Although this little book appears as one of the "English Citizen Series," it is of such exceptional merit as to make it everywhere valuable. Owing to the federal constitution of our country, we have neither a Parliament capable of national legislation concerning charities, nor a board of charity commissioners capable of administration. But our States are communities of considerable size, and every one of them has to face the problems with which the centralized government of England is required to deal. Moreover, these problems are becoming quite as pressing here as in England. Pauperism is diminishing there, while it is not only far more extensive here than our statistics would indicate, but is increasing at a frightful rate. For example, during the period from 1881 to 1894, the number of persons in receipt of outside relief in the State of Ohio rose from about 8,000 to 100,000.

Mr. Mackay begins with a striking presentation of the case against almsgiving in

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the broadest sense. He points out that, although the feudal conditions of *status* have been removed, there is still a disposition to regard poverty as a *status*, for the amelioration of which private property and freedom of exchange do not constitute an adequate provision. Hence the institution of permanent charitable endowments, which are really an anachronism in an age which assumes that an honorable independence is the general condition of citizenship. In such a society the receipt of alms is discreditable; and the Jews have a form of grace after meals in which they pray: "Suffer us not, O Lord our God, to stand in need of the gifts of mankind nor of their loans." This is no sordid commercialism, but a recognition of the fact that misery and unhappiness generally arise from the neglect of a number of plain and simple obligations, and that the character of these evils is not changed by eleemosynary ministrations. Whatever may be the Christian practice, no one can affirm that Dr. Chalmers has ever been refuted in his demonstration that the condition of the poor is deteriorated by the Poor Law, and improved by its abolition. This general position is sustained by the authority of W. von Humboldt, Turgot, Adam Smith, Lords Brougham and Sherbrooke, and others; but it is hardly necessary to say that the establishment of charitable endowments has proceeded *pari passu* with the modern increase of wealth.

Such being the practice, the need of regulation and visitation has become steadily more pressing, and Mr. Mackay tells us how the Charity Commissioners have investigated the past and modified the future of innumerable foundations. When we learn that the annual cost of this board is £40,000, it is easy to believe that their functions are extensive; but it is questionable if they are so extensive as they should be. Some 200 years ago one John Harrison left a fund for the benefit of his poor relations, the claimants of which are now 1,500 in number. Certainly such trusts as this should not be covered by the mantle of charity, and in numberless instances it has been found practicable to disregard the specific conditions of charitable bequests, and apply them with some regard for modern requirements.

For American readers the most useful part of Mr. Mackay's book is that which treats of the relations between legal and voluntary agencies of relief. Very conclusive evidence is given that the application of the workhouse test invariably reduces the number of paupers to a moderate figure, without increasing the suffering from poverty. This application, however, is desirably supplemented by such agencies as the Charity Organization societies; and most other charities, to put it bluntly, do more harm than good. Their managers are naturally disposed to extend their operations, and it is hardly necessary to say that the demands of recipients of benefaction always keep up with the supply. Mr. Mackay is well aware that much of his doctrine is contrary to the sentiment of very many well-meaning people; but he urges with a great deal of force the undeniable lessons of experience concerning the results of almsgiving, and insists that unless we are bound to try a communistic experiment, we should consistently apply the principles of the contractual régime.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E. The Documents of the Hexateuch. Vol. II. Putnams. $4.
Block, L. J. Capriccios. Putnams. $1.25.
Bréal, Michel. Un Officier de l'Ancienne France, etc. Deux Etudes sur Goethe. Paris: Hachette.
Britton, Prof. N. L., and Brown, Addison. An Illustrated Flora of the Northern U. S., Canada, and the British Possessions. Vol. III. Apocynaceæ to Compositæ. Scribners. $3.
Brownson, H. F. Orestes A. Brownson's Early Life, 1803-1844. Detroit, Mich.: H. F. Brownson.
Bruchmann, Kurt. Poetik: Naturlehre der Dichtung. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Brunetière, F. Essays in French Literature. Scribners. $2.
Burt, P. H. Regret of Spring. A Love Episode. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Bryce, James. William Ewart Gladstone. Century Co. $1.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities. 1898. London: Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Chailley-Bert, Joseph. L'Education et les Colonies. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Chester, Norley. Stories from Dante. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Collections and Recollections. By One Who has Kept a Diary. Harpers. $2.50.
Colton, B. P. Physiology, Experimental and Descriptive. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.12.
Conklin, Abram. What Are You Doing Here? Boston: J. H. West. 50c.
Conybeare, F. C. The Key of Truth: A Manual of the Paulician Church of Armenia. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Curry, J. L. M. A Brief Sketch of George Peabody, and a History of the Peabody Education Fund through Thirty Years. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Foster, R. F. Common Sense in Whist. Brooklyn: R. F. Foster.
Frankel, A. H. In Gold We Trust! Philadelphia: William H. Pile's Sons.
Franklin, Rear-Admiral S. R. Memories of a Rear-Admiral. Harpers. $3.
Gautier, Judith. Khou-n-atonou (Fragments d'un papyrus). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Gibbs, W. E. Lighting by Acetylene. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Gooch, G. P. The History of English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Hilyard, Ida L. Love Does It All. Boston: J. H. West. 50c.
Hollopeter, Dr. W. C. Hay-Fever and its Successful Treatment. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. $1.
Howells, W. D. Stories of Ohio. American Book Co. 60c.
Howells, W. D. The Story of a Play. Harpers. $1.50.
Kerr, Joe. The Cheery Book. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
List of Private Libraries. Vol. III. Germany. Leipzig: G. Hedeler.
Lys, Christian. The Hepsworth Millions. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Macgoffin, Barnes. Where the Smile Comes In. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Masson-Forestier. Angoisses de Juge. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Moffett, Cleveland. True Detective Stories. G. W. Dillingham Co. 25c.
Moore, F. F. The Millionaires. Appletons. $1.
Moses, Prof. Bernard. Democracy and Social Growth in America. Putnams. $1.
Oakley, Hester C. As Having Nothing. Putnams. $1.
O'Neill, Kate. Punctuation Practically Illustrated. A. Lovell & Co. 50c.
Potwin, Prof. L. S. Here and There in the Greek Testament. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Prescott, E. L. Red-Coat Romances. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Pritchard, Rosalind. London and Londoners. 1898. London: Scientific Press; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Prothero, R. E. The Works of Lord Byron. Letters and Journals. Vol. I. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Rannie, D. W. Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne. Vol. IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Shields, Prof. C. W. The Reformer of Geneva: An Historical Drama. Putnams. $1.25.
Sudermann, Hermann. Regina; or, The Sins of the Fathers. John Lane. $1.50.
Taylor, Prof. A. R. The Study of the Child. Appletons.
The Atlantic Monthly. Vol. LXXXI. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
"The Living Age." April-June, 1898. Boston: Living Age Co.
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